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COMMUNICATIONS, ORIGINAL AND SELECTED.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE HERRING.

TRANSLATED FROM L'HISTOIRE NATURELLE DES POISSONS PARRENT—BY BLOCH.

THE Herring of the North, or the Stromling of the Baltic, is distinguished from other fish of the same *genus*, by the projection of the lower jaw, which is bent backwards, and by the seventeen rays of the anal fin. There are eight rays in the gill membranes, eighteen in the dorsal, pectoral and caudal fins, and nine in the ventral.

The head is small, the eye large, the iris silver, and the eye-ball black. The aperture of the mouth is small, the tongue short, pointed, and furnished on the inside with small teeth. The openings of the gills are usually of a violet, or red colour, which vanishes soon after death. The back is thick, round and blackish; the lateral line, which is near, is scarcely visible, the sides of a silver colour. Except during spawning time the belly is sharp and indented. All the fins are grey and small, except that of the tail, which is pointed and large.

This fish, so generally known, and equally admitted to the pompous table of the rich and the cottage of the poor, has been long known to our ancestors. They, however, did not derive from it all the profit which we have procured during the last centuries. It did not form a considerable branch of commerce with them as with us, because they did not know how to preserve it from putrefaction, as we do, by means of sea-salt. Towards the end of the thirteenth century, chance revealed to William Beukelen, a native of Brabant,* this secret, which has saved so many lives, as it had discovered to Schwartz that of gun-powder, by which such numbers have perished. Beukelen's intention was undoubtedly to preserve the fish for some time, which led him to the discovery of packing it in casks with sea-salt. By care and reflection his method has been gradually improved, and at length brought to the perfection which it has now attained. This benefactor of mankind was fully deserving of the mark of attention paid to his memory by the Emperor Charles V. who celebrated this invention one hundred and fifty years after his death, by eating a herring on his tomb. This invention is so much the more important as the fish is of a soft and fat nature, is caught principally during the hottest part of the summer, and spoils very soon unless this precaution be taken.*

This fish is found in the Northern Ocean, in the North Sea and the Baltic, which communicates with it, as well as in the Atlantic, where it inhabits the depths, whence it departs, partly in spring, partly in summer and autumn, to take shelter in the rugged and craggy places in the mouths of rivers, where it may spawn and procure sustenance.

It is a very general opinion, that during winter the herrings retire into the Frozen Ocean, and that they thence undertake long voyages to the Southern parts of Europe and America. Let us see what Dott, Anderson, Duhamel and Bomare say concerning this. The

* Others say that this secret was discovered by a Scotch fisherman, who having quitted his country in disgust, taught the Flemings the art of barrelling herrings. The herrings of Flanders long maintained a high character.

* Yarmouth has long been famous for its Herring-fair (this fair was regulated by an act, commonly called the Statute of Herrings; in the 31st of Edward the third) that town is obliged by its charter, to send to the Sheriff of Norwich, one hundred herrings, to be made into twenty-four pies, by them to be delivered to the Lord of the manor of East Carleton, who is to convey them to the king. PENNANT.

herrings, terrified by the number of enemies which pursue them, retire into the Frozen Ocean, where their enemies cannot live under the ice, for want of air. But as they multiply exceedingly in this sea, they are compelled, from want of food, to send out colonies in the beginning of every year.* These colonies going from beneath the ice, extend over a space of some hundreds of miles; but, as during their journey they are attacked by a great number of enemies, they are dispersed and divided into two wings, the right turns towards the west, the left to the east. The first press upon one another, and seek a shelter on the coast of Iceland, where they arrive in the month of March, then they take a westerly direction, and come to the banks of New-foundland. Their future course is not accurately known. The others on the contrary, direct their course towards the South, and divide into two columns, one of which proceeds along the coast of Norway, and enters the Baltic Sea by the Sound and the Belts, while the other turns to the west, towards the Shetland and Orkney Isles. There this latter column again divides; one part turns towards Ireland and Scotland, then turning round Ireland, enters the Spanish Sea (the Bay of Biscay) and passes through the British Channel to gain the coast of the Netherlands. The other division follows the eastern coast of Scotland and England, and passes into the North Sea, where the two columns re-unite. These great bodies of herrings send out smaller detachments on all sides, towards the coasts of France, Brabant, Flanders, Holland, Friesland, Zealand, Holstein, Bremen, Lubeck, Pomerania, Sweden, Denmark, and Livonia. Finally, after having presented themselves to the inhabitants of all these countries, they re-unite in the North Sea, and disappear; at least no traces of them can be afterwards discovered on the coast of Europe, and it is thought that they return to their former station.*

This recital though ingenious and bordering on the marvellous, and though generally admitted. does not prevent me from expressing some doubts as to its veracity, which I leave to the decision of the learned.

* The great rendezvous of the herring is within the Artic circle, there they continue for many months, in order to recruit themselves after the fatigue of spawning, the seas within that space, swarming with insect-food, in a degree far greater than in our warmer latitudes. PENNANT.

Mr. John Gilpin, in the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Vol. ii. p. 236, says, "the herrings are a fish of passage and observe one regular annual route in the sea, shifting their climate with the sun, and that it is the same scoole which is found at different times about Britain and America. For they are found on the other side of the Atlantic, or rather in the North Sea, in the favourable month of June, about the islands of Shetland from whence they proceed down to the Orkneys, surround the British Isles, and uniting again off the Lands-end, in September, steer south-west across the Atlantic, and appear next on the American coasts. They arrive in Georgia and Carolina the latter end of January, in Virginia in February, and coasting from thence eastward to New England, they divide and go into all the bays, rivers, creeks, and even small streams of water, and continue spawning in fresh water until the latter end of April, when the old fish return into the sea, where they change their latitudes by a Northward direction, and arrive at Newfoundland in May, after which we neither hear or see any thing more of them in America, until their return in the ensuing spring. This course of migration, Mr. Gilpin has traced on a chart of the Atlantic.

* Whether the course of the herrings depends on the set of the current, has not been sufficiently observed to enable us to account for their appearance on certain parts of a coast and not on others. It is said that Lough Swilly is the first part of the western coast of Ireland where the herring appears, and Tor Point on the eastern; so that the whole space from Lough Swilly to Tor Point is commonly without herrings. Now on examining a chart of the northern coast of Ireland, the course of the northern stream seems in part to countenance the opinion that the currents have a great influence in directing the herrings to particular coasts; and that when storms obstruct the natural course of the current, the herring may appear at one time where they are never found again. As this is a very interesting subject, we will be obliged to any person who can give us any information on it.

1. It is not true that one wing emigrates annually to Iceland; for Horrebow, who lived several years in that Island, assures us that several years often pass, during which not a trace of them can be discovered.—According to Olaffen, Egede, and Otto Fabricius, this fish is seldom found on the coasts of this island; which is in itself very probable, for if the herrings visited it, the Danish government, ever anxious to profit by its fisheries, would not have failed to have taken advantage of this.

2. It is not possible that in so short a space of time, that is to say, from spring to autumn, they could perform a voyage of so many thousand miles; for it is certain, that in smooth water, a fish can scarcely proceed more than a quarter, or at most half a mile, in twenty-four hours.—The herring must necessarily move much more slowly when it has to struggle against the agitation of the sea.

3. Herrings are to be met with on the coasts of Europe during the whole year. In Swedish Pomerania, for example, they begin to catch them in great numbers from January till March, and in many parts of the Baltic, from March till November; as also during this latter season in Norway. They also catch them in great numbers in the seas round Gothland, from October till December; the French take them to the end of the year. They find them also the whole year round on the coast of England, and the Scarborough fishermen never draw their nets without finding some herring among the other fish. When the Dutch fishermen are not satisfied with their success, they continue it till February on the coasts of Scotland. In the north of Holland, that is, towards Enkhuisen, Monckendam, and Hoorne, they fish for herring in February, March, and April. In fine, they fish for them in Sweden till the middle of winter.

4. If this fish comes in large bodies from the North pole, why does the smaller kind turn towards the Baltic, and the larger towards the North Sea?

5. If the herrings are pursued by the whales, why do they travel many hundred miles farther than is necessary for avoiding the danger? Does the sight of this creature, or, as M. Strohm asserts, its dreadful bellowings inspire them with such terror as to continue long time after they have escaped the danger? In such a case I do not see why they should expose themselves a second time, in winter to the attacks of this dreadful enemy.

6. If the herrings came from the North would they be caught during the whole Summer in such numbers on the coast of Norway? Would they not, like birds of passage, be found in great numbers at some seasons, and seldom, or not at all, at others?

7. Should we not then observe some marks of their return? Even though they do not approach the coasts, would not the grampus, the porpoise, and the whale, which pursue them incessantly, discover their course?

8. Were it only want of food which compelled the herring to send out colonies, why would this always occur at the same time, and in the same season? Is it probable that their provisions should fail exactly at the end of the year?

9. If the whales drive them in shoals into the bays, why are they found in shoals in places, such as the North Sea, and the Baltic, where there are none of these formidable enemies?

All these difficulties will vanish, if we study nature attentively in all her operations. The herrings in common with all other fish quit their usual abode during spawning time, and seek out places where they can deposite their spawn undisturbed.—For this reason they leave the deep water, like the others, in order to find solitary places, rough and broken by the violence of the currents.—Wherefore, about this time, when the fishery is most abundant, the milt is liquid in the male, and the eggs separate in the female. The spawning season draws near, and it is this instinct, not the dread of whales, that draws them into such places. Like all other fishes they spawn at three

different seasons, generally according to their age: besides, as the spawning time of the same fish occurs sometimes sooner, sometimes later according to the temperature of the water, and of the air, it is easy to discover why the herring appears at different times. For example, in the Baltic and on the coast of Norway a small kind which comes to spawn there, is seen, in summer; a shoal of larger size appears, in autumn; a smaller kind again appears, full of eggs and milts, and which therefore is on the point of spawning. The same takes place on the coast of Scotland. For this reason the Dutch fishermen divide this commodity into three qualities, which they call *virgin herrings*, *empty herrings*, and *full herrings*. Empty herrings, are those in which neither milt nor eggs are found; virgin herrings, those in which the milt and eggs are liquid; and full herrings, those whose bodies are full of milts and eggs. Empty herrings are nothing more than such as have spawned in spring, and full herrings such as spawn in autumn and winter, while the virgin herrings spawn in summer. It is well known that sea fish, or those in lakes, who go up the rivers or streams in spring, do not return till autumn to the place of their usual habitation. This is undoubtedly the case with herrings also, and hence proceeds their dispersion into a variety of places in winter. It is also not improbable that the herring, which is a small sea-fish, spawns like many species of small river fish, more than once in the year. Nature has different means of attaining the same end, for as the small frequently become the prey of the large, the former must necessarily multiply much more than the latter, this is effected by their spawning more frequently. The same may be remarked in small birds and other species of animals. This prodigious multiplication has led many writers to believe that this fish spawns also beneath the ice in the polar regions. When we reflect on the immense extent of space which has been given to the herring for its habitation, we ought not to be astonished at their prodigious numbers, and astonishing multiplication, observed even so early as the time of Aristotle, which serves to repair the immense numbers daily destroyed: all this happens under our own eyes in the case of river fishes, in a manner proportionate to the small space they occupy. If fish was not so much disturbed during the spawning time, they would multiply in a manner still more extraordinary. This is demonstrated by experiments lately made by an intelligent writer on natural economy. He made a carp-pond, containing about seven acres, which he supplied with plenty of provisions, and put into it three females, and four males. They produced young to the number of 110,000, which was too considerable, and prevented them from attaining their full growth. We may also draw another proof of the prodigious multiplication of fish, from the greater number of males than females. This circumstance is very favourable to the increase of fish. The places in which they spawn also contribute much to this; as these are generally in deep water, and at a distance from the shore, they are much less exposed to the danger of being disturbed or dispersed by tempests and inundations. I will add one circumstance more.

The wise laws enacted in the United Provinces to preserve the character of their herrings, contribute in no small degree to facilitate their increase.—Every sailor and fisherman, before he sets out, is obliged to bind himself by oath, not to cast his nets before the 25th of June, and on his return, he must again declare on his oath that he has faithfully adhered to this engagement. It is true that the chief end of these precautions, is to procure the best sort of herrings; they have not only succeeded in this, but also thus encourage the multiplying of these creatures, by preventing their being interrupted in spring from fulfilling the great law of nature. Another law forbids the fishing to continue longer than the 25th of January. This is no less favourable to their increase, as those who spawn later are thereby suffered to remain undisturbed. These regulations have had such effect, that for several centuries the herring fishery

is carried on more successfully by the Dutch than by other nations, because fishes like to return to places where they have spawned without disturbance, and to those in which they were born. Formerly this fishery was much more considerable in Norway than at present. It has also failed considerably in Sweden: in Prussia also, where it was once very considerable, it is now almost totally extinct.

The disturbance of the fish, however, is not the only cause which prevents them from appearing a second time on a coast; a number sufficient to preserve the species always escapes through the nets, provided the fishermen, through a desire of increasing their prize, do not make the meshes too small, and that they do not take the fry along with the full grown, as is done by the Swedes. This method is extremely prejudicial: and it is perhaps from the same reason that the fisheries have failed in Prussia. The law in Holland, which regulates the size of the meshes in herring nets, is very useful. For thus, they not only always get large herrings, but they secure a plenty in future, because those of a smaller size escape through the nets, and propagate the species. Finally, it is well known by experience, that the water, the nature of the bottom, and other circumstances, contribute largely to render fishes larger, fatter, and better tasted in one country than in another. The salmon and salmon-trout taken in the Baltic are much inferior to those of the North Sea. It seems to me that the same reason will account for the herrings in the Baltic being much smaller and worse tasted than those of the North Sea.

The herring, so often exposed to the voracity of other creatures, belongs to the class of voracious fishes. It lives particularly on small crabs; Neucrantz has found in its stomach many half digested; Loewenhoek has found fishes' eggs in the œsophagus. It is also fond of worms. The Norwegian fishermen have often found its bowels filled with a kind of red worm, which they call *roe-aat*. When the fish is full of such food, it is generally supposed that it is diseased; but the truth is, that these worms being very liable to corrupt, spoil the herring before it is salted. As soon as these creatures are observed in herrings newly caught, the fishermen leave them some time longer in the water in order that they may be completely digested, and rendered capable of preservation till they are cured.

We have seen that the herring spawns at different times; with respect to this the following remarks have been made: Some days before they make their appearance in shoals, a few scattered males are met with, and moreover a greater number of females than males are observed in the same shoal. When the fish is about to spawn, it rubs its belly against the rocks, throws itself now on one side, again on the other, draws in the water eagerly with its mouth open, rejects it immediately, and agitates its fins with violence. As they generally come in large shoals, the sea is muddied by the great quantity of liquid spawn thrown out. At this time an offensive smell comes from them, which is perceptible to a great distance; in rubbing themselves, they lose part of their scales, which are seen floating on the water. These signs point out to the fishermen the places where they ought to throw their nets.

The stromling, or spring herring of the Baltic, spawns when the ice begins to melt, and this continues till the end of June. Then comes the largest kind, or the summer herring: and lastly the autumn herring, which spawns from St. Bartholemew to the middle of the mouth of September. All these kinds do not spawn at once, but by degrees. They then appear in shoals, and after having employed two or three days in spawning, they return to the open sea, making a noise very similar to a shower of rain. The summer herring keeps at a greater distance from the shore, and spawns in the deeper places; it is known by the eggs with which the nets and lines are often covered, as with a bark.

As to further particulars, it is not necessary to mention here, in detail, that at these times the herrings form shoals which observe a certain order; as this also happens to other fish, as the roach, the salmon, and the Baltic trout (salmo lavaretus). The same may be remarked in birds of passage, and field mice.

To be Continued.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

I HAVE read with much pleasure and interest, two papers lately published in your Magazine, signed "A Reader." His sentiments entirely coincide with mine in respect to Sterne, whose affected sensibility I could never read, without thinking of the many unfeeling acts he has been guilty of; besides his whole writings are so very exceptionable that they cannot be read without feeling hurt that human nature is so depraved as to admire a book which is so unfit to be read. I have lately been reading a book entitled, "The Correspondence of Samuel Richardson, author of Pamela, Clarissa, Sir Charles Grandison, &c. by Anna Lætitia Barbauld," and was much gratified to find my opinion of Sterne's writings was confirmed by an extract from a letter of Mr. Richardson's, to the Rev. Mr. Hildesley, Bishop of Sodor and Mann, including the sentiments of a young lady, part of which I shall take the liberty of extracting:

"Who is this Yorick? you are pleased to ask me. You cannot, I imagine, have looked into his books; execrable I cannot but call them, for I am told that the third and fourth volumes are worse, if possible, than the two first, which only I have had the patience to run through. One extenuating circumstance attends his works, that they are too gross to be inflaming. My daughter shall transcribe for me the sentiments of a young lady, as written to another lady, her friend in the country, on the publication of the two first volumes only:

"Happy are you in your retirement, where you read what books you choose, either for instruction or entertainment; but in this foolish town, we are obliged to read every foolish book that fashion renders prevalent in conversation, and I am horribly out of humour with the present taste, which makes people ashamed to own they have not read, what, if fashion did not authorise, they would with more reason blush to say they had read! Perhaps some polite person from London, may have forced this piece into your hands, but give it not a place in your library; let not Tristram Shandy be ranked among the well chosen authors there. It is, indeed, a little book, and little are its merits, though great has been the writer's reward! Unaccountable wildness; whimsical digressions: comical incoherencies; uncommon indecencies; all with an air of novelty, has caught the reader's attention, and applause has flown from one to another, till it is almost singular to disapprove; even the bishops admire, and recompense his wit, though his own character as a clergyman seems much impeached by printing such gross and vulgar tales, as no decent mind can endure without extreme disgust! Yet I will do him justice, and, if forced by friends, or led by curiosity, you have read, and laughed, and almost cried at Tristram, I will agree with you that there is subject for mirth, and some affecting strokes. Yorick, Uncle Toby, and Trim are admirably characterised, and very interesting, and an excellent sermon of a peculiar kind, on conscience, is introduced; and I most admire the author for his judgment in seeing the town's folly in the extravagant praises and favour's heaped on him; for he says, he passed unnoticed by the world till he put on a fool's coat, and since that every body admires him!

"But mark my prophecy, that by another season, this performance will be as much decried, as it is now extolled; for it has not intrinsic merit sufficient to prevent its sinking, when no longer upheld by the short lived breath of fashion: and yet another prophecy I utter, that this ridiculous compound will be the cause of many more productions, witless and humourless, perhaps, but indecent and absurd, till the town will be punished for undue encouragement, by being poisoned with disgustful nonsense."

While I am on this subject, I beg you will also allow me to remark how much injury has been done to society from some of Miss Owenson's works, particularly the "Lay of an Irish Harp," in which I am sorry to say she has departed from that delicacy of feeling, which ought so peculiarly to mark the female character. Her late novel, "Woman, or Ida of Athens," was so excellently criticized in your Magazine, I wish the Reviewer had

mentioned with disapprobation, as a most objectionable part, the coquetry and studying of attitudes, of which all Miss Owenson's heroines are so fond, as I hope that *some* of the female sex are superior to such things.

A LOVER OF SIMPLICITY OF CHARACTER.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

ON MORALITY.

"Say, Reason, say,
When shall thy long minority expire?
When shall thy dilatory kingdom come?
Weak are the outward checks, that would supply,
Thy bridle's place, within the secret heart.
The *pigmy Rapine*, whose invasions vex,
The *private scene*, that hides his head minute,
From human justice, it is thine to end:
And thine, the *Titan-crimes*, that lift to heaven,
Their blushless fronts, and laugh at laws."

FAWCETT'S CIVILIZED WAR.

IN writing on the subject of morals, it will be unavoidable not to bring into view how far they are influenced by the political institutions which exist among us, or not to express a wish that more of the exertions of legislators were turned towards introducing a correct morality, through the means of an enlightened system of legislation, especially directed to this point. Good laws would do much, good examples in the higher and middling classes would do more towards introducing this correct system through all the various classes of the community, beginning at the higher ranks, and extending through all the gradations of society. Dr. Johnson, in an advanced period of his life, on being asked whether he had found mankind better or worse than he had formed his expectations on entering into the world, answered, "he had found them less just, but more benevolent." We are frequently the creatures of surrounding circumstances, and many from the pressure of adversity, have had their moral principle undermined. "My poverty, but not my will consents," is not a valid plea for the errors of the poor, but yet it may be allowed to go in mitigation of a rigorous condemnation. I have often with heartfelt satisfaction observed the latter part of Dr. Johnson's remark exemplified, in perceiving that benevolence is a quality more frequently found in human nature than the misanthrope may be willing to allow. It may be sometimes nearly smothered, but it often revives, and few hearts are insensible to its delicate touches.

A very great error lies in laying too much stress on the ceremonials of religion, while the essence of religion, that great principle, which according to the radical meaning of the word (from the Latin verb religare to bind or fasten) binds man to man, is too much neglected. Morality, that duty which man owes to himself, and his neighbour must be inseparably linked with the duty he owes to his God.

The importance of morality must be acknowledged by all classes. It forms the principal security for our comfortable enjoyment of life, as much of the unhappiness existing in the world proceeds from a relaxed system of morals. In this state interests clash, and the passions of ourselves and others disturb our quiet. One person, or a few departing from the dictates of a correct morality, produce similar actions in others. Vice has a tendency to introduce a re-action. If I am injured by my neighbour, and irritation succeeds, or retaliation follows; at every step, in this race of error, we get farther from the course of rectitude, until from the invasions of pigmy rapine, great crimes follow as the certain consequence. Morality is the very essence of religion, it is the practical exemplification of our duty to God and man, and affords the legislator the the best sanction for the scrupulous fulfilment of the laws of justice. K.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

ON SIR FRANCIS BURDETT, AND PARTIES.

FROM the notice often taken of your work, and particularly of your Political Retrospect, I find you offend the timid and time-serving. But persevere and probably the voice of the People will soon be with you. The late investigation in the House of Commons has done much to open the eyes of the people of England, as evinced by the proceedings of the cities of London, Westminster, and other places.

Perhaps Ireland may yet catch a spark of the public spirit, though some of her *once patriotic* members were found in the majority against Wardle's motion.

Men, who belong to parties, cannot be much depended on; they have their private purposes to answer, and may not wish to shut the door against their return to power on some future contingency. But in this instance we have seen the business carried by the voice of the people against *all parties*: for after all we may see that the people compelled the House of Commons to go so far as they were reluctantly driven, and it was the voice of public censure that prevented them from giving the Duke of York a full acquittal.

My principal design in writing is to communicate through your pages an anecdote of Sir Francis Burdett, when he was in France, during the short peace in 1802. He was asked to what party he belonged? Whether to the party of Fox? "No," says he, "TO THE PARTY OF THE PEOPLE." A noble answer! and yet I have heard him censured, as not being in this answer, sufficiently respectful to this famous statesman. But Sir Francis scorned to wear the badge of party.

I shall mention an instance of the servility of party in the Irish House of Commons.

The members dependent on a certain Northern Peer, actually appeared in the house, in a uniform, which was the livery of that nobleman.—This was only a barefaced avowal of what others practice with nearly equal servility. A SIFTER.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

ON THE AFRICAN INSTITUTION.

I FIND it is not inconsistent with the plan of your work to receive contributions from other periodical works, when the obligation is honestly acknowledged. I therefore send you the annexed anecdote of Sir Sidney Smyth, extracted from the Monthly Repository of Theology and General Literature, for the last month.

A READER.

AFRICAN INSTITUTION.

THE annual meeting of this laudable Society was holden on Saturday, the 25th instant, at the Freemason's Tavern, his Highness the Duke of Gloucester, Patron and President, in the chair. The report of the proceedings of the Directors was ordered to be published, and will be analyzed in this work, as soon as it appears. The Earl of Moira having informed the meeting in a very impressive speech, of his having recently learnt that Sir Sidney Smyth had been presented by the Prince Regent of Portugal with an estate, and with a number of negro-slaves, to be employed in cultivating it; and that the use Sir Sidney had made of this gift was immediately to liberate the slaves, and to allot to each of them a portion of this estate, to be cultivated by them as free labourers, for their own exclusive benefits. It was resolved unanimously, on the motion of Mr. Wilberforce, That his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester be requested to communicate to Sir Sidney Smith, the high sense entertained by this meeting, of his admirable judgment and liberality in the above instance, and to return him their warmest thanks for a conduct which is so truly honourable to the British name and character, and which may be expected in the way of example to be productive of the happiest effects.

We wish, by quoting the above resolution, to express our admiration of Sir Sidney's conduct. Without meaning any disrespect to the military profession, we could almost hope that he may be less known hereafter by the appellation of, *the hero of Acre*, than by that (which is well deserved) of THE PHILANTHROPIST OF THE BRAZILS.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

A SUCCESSFUL ATTEMPT TO CIVILIZE INDIA BY PEACEABLE MEANS, A GOOD LESSON FOR GOVERNORS, EXTRACTED FROM A NARRATIVE OF A TOUR THROUGH BENGAL, AND THE INTERIOR OF HINDOSTAN IN 1794, &c. PUBLISHED IN THE LONDON MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

MR. CLEVELAND was appointed chief of Baugilpore, about the year 1778. This gentleman was by nature humane, mild, and con-

ciliating; the manners and customs of the natives had been his particular study, and experience in his dealings with them had taught him that a free and unreserved confidence tended more to establish a friendly intercourse, than any other method; his benevolent and capacious mind embraced the idea of converting this lawless race of people into useful citizens, and establishing them as barriers against the attacks of the remoter and more ferocious tribes. With this philanthropic intention, he issued orders to the Seapoys, when next they took any of them prisoners, to use them kindly, and bring them to him; this with some difficulty was done, when Mr. Cleveland, instead of ordering them to be hung up, as had been the general custom, treated them with the greatest mildness and humanity, expressed his desire to be on terms of friendship with all their people, and finally dismissed them with handsome presents, and a message to their chief, signifying his wish to have an interview with him, to treat about affairs that would tend to their mutual advantage; and to remove all cause of apprehension on their part, he proposed going amongst them into the remote and intricate recesses of their native hills, attended only by an interpreter. The astonished mountaineers, who expected nothing but death, regarded him as a being of a superior race, and departed with a promise of returning, with the answer of their Rajah, which they did in a few days, bringing his assent to the proposed interview. Mr. Cleveland accordingly proceeded, notwithstanding the earnest advice and remonstrance of his friends, a large party of whom accompanied him to the foot of the hills; he ascended with confidence, and was conducted by his guides through various turnings and windings, to the presence of the Rajah. After the usual introductory compliments, he opened the cause of his visit, and expatiated in a forcible manner on the advantages the mountaineers would derive from the friendship and protection of the English. The Rajah listened to him with attention, the language and manners of Mr. Cleveland, the confidence he reposed in trusting himself alone and unarmed amongst them, and above all, an ancient tradition which had been handed down from father to son, that they were to derive some great benefit from the visit, and consequent friendship of a stranger, carried conviction to the mind of the Rajah, and induced him to enter into Mr. Cleveland's views, without further hesitation. That gentleman taking advantage of the superstitious ideas the tradition had inspired them with, proposed immediately to cement their friendship by the solemn ties of religion. The Rajah with all the ardour and joy semi-barbarism feels in the expectation of possessing some new, and as yet unappreciated gift, summoned the priests to his presence, and without further delay ratified the treaty with all the solemnity and awe the most sacred rites of religion are capable of inspiring. Mr. Cleveland returned to Baugilpore, attended by several of the mountaineers, who became so attached to his person, that he formed them into a corps, which was soon augmented by fresh recruits from the hills. Their fidelity and activity in protecting the villagers from the depredations of their countrymen, became so conspicuous, that it was thought prudent by government to entrust them with firelocks and discipline them in the European manner. The experiment succeeded admirably; applications for admittance into the corps became so numerous, that a battalion of one thousand men was soon formed, under the appellation of Hill rangers: the constant intercourse between these people and their brethren in the hills, brought about general habits of civilization and friendly intercourse, and at this day, scarcely thirty years from the first formation of the corps, the British government in India does not possess more peaceable and loyal subjects, than the mountaineers of Baugilpore.

Statesmen and warriors, who study how to enslave and slaughter mankind, have their names handed down to posterity by the pens of historians, while the modest virtues, and more essential services of such a man as Cleveland, unemblazoned with titles,

and undecorated with trophies, will sink into oblivion amidst the civilized world, save in the memory of the humane philanthropist, who can duly appreciate the value of his labours, in converting a lawless race of savages into useful and peaceable citizens, without the effusion of blood, by the mild but certain method of reciprocal benefit.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RUINED ABBEY OF BONA MARGA, IN THE COUNTY ANTRIM.

ALONG the extensive coast of the county Antrim, are scattered several ruins, whose origin is generally lost in fable, but whose rude and massive architecture evince their remote antiquity. Many of these were evidently intended for permanent castles of defence against the predatory invasions of the Scotch.—Some for the residence of the baronial chieftain, and others for temporary watch-towers. Amid this number of Gothic remains, the only monastic building on the coast is the abbey of Bona Marga, which was founded in 1509, by Charles M'Donnell, for monks of the Franciscan order, and which may be ranked among the latest of the monastic edifices raised in Ireland. It is situated about a quarter of a mile from the village of Ballycastle, commanding to the west a view of the ocean, with the bold outlines of the rocks that rise in many a fantastic shape along the coast; to the south the undulating line of the mountain of Knock-lead, and to the east the extensive glen of Carey. The chapel is one hundred feet in length, and thirty-four in breadth. The refectory, cells, and other apartments, are too much dilapidated to allow any accurate description of their former size. The eastern gabel of the chapel which is still in a tolerable state of preservation is adorned with several well executed devices in bass relief, which however are now rapidly mouldering to decay. To the east of the great entrance to the chapel are the remains of a small edifice with narrow pointed gabels, which seems to have been the lodge of a porter, or lay-brother. The venerable stillness of this sacred spot, the numerous reliques of mortality that surround it, and the remembrance it produces of days that have been, give it even in its present desolated state an appearance more interesting, more impressive than it possessed when rising in all its plenitude of monkish pride; for, in viewing a well finished modern structure, there is a *ne plus ultra*, upon which the eye and mind are equally forced to rest. But in the contemplation of an ancient ruin, there is such room for imagination to add a thousand ornamental touches, such softened regret for the transiency of human workmanship, that its greatest interest arises from its decay, and it is from this principle that many a coarse and barbarous mass of Gothic labour, has, from a lapse of time mouldered into beauty.

The view of Bona Marga has of late been necessarily injured by the addition of a new roof to a small oratory which was built adjoining the great Abbey church, by a former Earl of Antrim, over the ashes of several of his family, whose burial place it is; a window in this oratory has also been stopped up, over which is an inscription, now rendered almost illegible, but of which the following is an accurate copy:

In Dei Dei-parisque virginis honorem,
Nobilissimus atque illustrissimus
Randolphus M'Donnell
Comes De Antrim,
Hoc sacellum fieri curarit,
Anno Dom. 1621.

In the Antrim vault there is a singular inscription, in Irish characters, on the coffin of the first Marquis of Antrim, a transcript of which, with a translation, shall appear in an ensuing Magazine. L.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

CAMP MEETINGS.

I LATELY received the following account of one of the Camp-meetings so common in America, from an intelligent Correspondent, in New York. It may probably be gratifying to several of your readers, as it holds out in a strong point of view,

the dangers of fanaticism. It forms an instructive page in the natural history of man; and affords an example of his aberrations and obliquities! My aim is not to offend any, but to seek to inform. RATIONAL.

"About the latter end of last summer, I had a severe visitation of illness, so much so, that I began to suspect myself in an advanced stage of consumption. About this time there was a methodist camp-meeting to be held forty miles from this city, (New York) up the North River. I thought a sail might be useful to my health, and would also gratify a curiosity I long had, of being at one of these meetings, about which I had heard so much conversation. Accordingly I took a passage in a sloop bound for the camp meeting, with a number of others, some of whom were Methodists, and others not. We sailed at 9 o'clock in the morning, and arrived about 8 next morning. We had to go about three quarters of a mile, after we landed, to the camp. For a considerable part of the way, our ears enjoyed the sound of human voices in the exercises of singing and praying, which greatly increased as we approached nearer. It was about breakfast time, when I arrived. I had formed intentions previously to my leaving home, of noting particulars in writing, and had made preparations accordingly: but I soon found myself incapable of it, from the multiplicity of extraordinary circumstances, to keep an account of which, appeared nearly as impossible as to attempt to number the stars. They consisted in the most extreme exertions of the human passions, bounded only by religious enthusiasm. Under its directions, and influenced by this stimulus, some were praying, some preaching, some singing, some shouting, and clapping their hands in exultation, some dancing and jumping, some crying, and others lying without motion, apparently deprived of life. The camp, according to supposition, took in about ten acres: it was in the woods. The tents were arranged round in a circular form, two, and in some places three deep, with a space to pass and repass. The Blacks had one corner to themselves. Their fires were a few paces in from the tents. Circular also, in, or near the centre, is a stage for the regular preachers, to which the congregation were called thrice a day, viz. at ten, two, and six o'clock, by the sound of a silver trumpet. It is a principal topic of the preacher to impress on his hearers the usefulness of such meetings, and to declare the similarity of them to the ancient practice of Christians. He seldom concluded this business of preaching, praying, and singing, till he communicated so much of his enthusiastic fire, as to inflame the congregation: then a scene ensued of noise, and *regular disorder*, beyond my power of description. This they call an out-pouring of the spirit, and a modern day of Pentecost.

"After the congregation breaks up, they separate into smaller circles, and continue in numbers over the ground, day and night, influenced with an equal degree of extravagant zeal. I have frequently seen from one to six in these small circles, lying sometimes motionless; and others apparently in convulsions. In these cases the members form a moving circle, and walk round and round, to keep off the pressing croud, singing all the time. Curious as the scene is during the day, it is more so during the night, through the whole of which this devotion continues. The meeting lasts three or four days. This one ended with a love feast: after which the members formed into ranks of about six deep, and marched round the ground in procession; the men before, and the women behind, shaking hands with the preachers, who were fixed at a certain place. Thus ended the whole.

"These meetings are approved of, and under the direction, and generally attended by the Members of the Methodist society for many miles round. They bring with them bedding, and victuals for the time they stay, and admit of nothing being sold in the camp ground. Some tents are permitted at a distance, where articles of refreshment for strangers are sold. These are called the tents of wickedness."

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

ON FEVERS.

AS fever is at present very prevalent in your town, and some neighbouring places, I think you might profitably occupy a corner in your miscellany with the following Rules to prevent the spreading of infectious fevers. I likewise recommend you to publish the address lately circulated, previous to the charity sermon preached in the parish church of Belfast on the 5th of March last, for the benefit of the Fever Hospital and Dispensary. As the remarks are so excellent and of a general tendency as to the prevention of contagion, it would be wrong to confine them within the circle in which they were originally published. By diffusing them more generally, you may confer a public benefit, by showing the necessity of establishing Houses of Recovery in cases of fever in other places. A PHILANTHROPIST.

Rules to prevent infectious fevers.

IT may be proper to observe that the poison of a putrid fever, in a small, close, and dirty room, affects a very great proportion of mankind, not less than 26 out of 27, or a still greater proportion; but, in a large, airy, clean apartment, even putrid fevers are seldom or ever infectious. When this poisonous vapour is mixed with fresh air it is not hurtful. From an attentive consideration of numerous facts, relative to this distemper, have been formed the following rules:

1. As safety from danger entirely depends on cleanliness, and fresh air, the room-door of the patient, ill of an infectious fever, especially in the habitations of the poor, should never be shut, a window in it during the day, ought to be frequently opened. Such regulations would be highly useful to the patient and nurses: but are particularly important previous to the arrival of any visitor.

2. The bed-curtains should never be close drawn round the patient, but only next the light to shade the face.

3. Dirty clothes, utensils, &c. should be frequently changed, immediately put into cold water, and washed clean, when taken out of it.

4. All discharges from the patient should be instantly removed. The floor near the patient's bed rubbed clean every day.

5. The air in a sick room has, at the same time, a more infectious quality in some parts of it than in others. Visitors and attendants should avoid the patient's breath; the air which ascends from his body, especially if the bed curtains be closed, and the vapours arising from all evacuations. When medical or other duties require a visitor to be placed in these situations of danger, infection may be frequently prevented by holding in the breath.

6. Visitors should not go into an infectious chamber, with an empty stomach, and in doubtful circumstances on coming out, they should blow from the nose, and spit from the mouth, any infectious poison, which may have been drawn in by the breath.

ADDRESS TO THE INHABITANTS OF BELFAST.

THE managing Committee of the DISPENSARY and FEVER HOSPITAL, from an experience of several years, in the public utility of these Establishments, call upon the Inhabitants of Belfast for a continuance of support and encouragement. The Committee make this call with confidence, from a conviction, that an Institution which has deserved so well the patronage of the Public, will not now be considered as a subject of mere casual and precarious bounty, but rather worthy of permanent and habitual protection. It is no longer an experiment to be tried, but an Establishment to be maintained.

Motives of humanity, and of *self-interest*, unite in securing the permanence of an Institution, which has hitherto drawn forth the judicious liberality of the Inhabitants. Every Man, for his own sake, every Father, for the sake of his family, must be willing to contribute something to an assurance from the spread of Fever, as he would from the ravages of Fire; and it is the object of the Hospital to extinguish Fever in its first sparks, before it spreads, from neglect, uncleanliness, or mismanagement, through the family, then through the neighbourhood, and, at length, by the necessary intercourse of society, in

various ways, through the whole town. A single case of Fever, from the focus of a dirty hovel, may chance to multiply into a malignant epidemic. The Institution wishes to arrest it in the earliest part of its progress, to crush the head of the serpent, before it gathers all its venomous malignancy, before it propagates its likeness, before it creeps from its low abode, into the chambers of the middling and higher orders, where, in general, it darts its mortal poison.

It has been said that Fever, among the poor, is seldom fatal, that nature is generally the best physician, and that she performs the cure, in spite of the drugs and the Doctors. But the poor, as well as the rich must, and will, have Doctors of one kind or other. They will become subjects of a bad practice, if they be not, by professional humanity, made subjects of a good plan of treatment. They will be obliged to drink spirits out of a naggin, if they do not get proper medicine out of a phial. Nature will be always more counteracted by the prejudices of the vulgar, than under the management of a regular Physician, who knows himself to be but Nature's servant and interpreter. It appears certain that the advice and authority of men who unite knowledge to humanity, and zeal with activity, have gradually, and imperceptibly, produced the best effects in changing the regimen usually adopted by the poor, in cases of Fever. Their experience of cold, as one of the greatest evils, had probably led to the prejudice, that heat, both external and internal must be the sovereign remedy, and hence they recurred, in such complaints, at the very first, to ardent spirits through choice, and, at the last, to cold water through necessity.

Medicines are supplied to the poor in the Dispensary-department of the Institution; and the sick poor, who cannot be removed, are visited by either physician or surgeon at their own abodes. All subscribers of one guinea in the year, have a power of recommending to the Hospital and the Dispensary.

Every large town, in particular every manufacturing town, and Belfast has, of late years, become of that number, may be said to be encircled with a margin of misery. Often, the more prosperous, and gay, and sparkling things appear in the interior of such towns, the broader and darker is this border of wretchedness which surrounds them. The pressure of want, in a certain degree, may be allotted to a large portion of every society, as the most effectual stimulus and incitement to labour, and industry; but there is an extreme degree of want and misery, which precludes all ability to labour, begets a torpid inactivity, and finishes, by generating pestilential disorders. It becomes, therefore, the duty, the interest and the sacred obligation of the more wealthy part of the Community to guard their fellow-citizens, themselves and their families, from the ravages of malignant contagions. The most useful part of the Police, in a great town, is that which respects the health of the inhabitants, and it is often a department the most shamefully neglected.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

HAVING understood that freedom is allowed in your press, I wish to offer the following remarks to my fellow-islanders, through the medium of your Magazine.

AN ADDRESS TO THE PEOPLE OF IRELAND.

Countrymen,

As the present time seems to be awfully important, whether we take a view of the nations at large, or of those kingdoms with whose prosperity our own welfare is so intimately connected, it would appear to be our duty, in our respective stations, to remove the grievances we now lie under, as far as in our power, by an examination of our past conduct, wherein we may view the causes of our present distress. If we take a view of the rise and progress of the French war, and impartially consider what were the motives by which we were influenced to carry on that dreadful and destructive contest, I am confident we will find it was rather from pride and ambition, than from a benevolent love to the human race.—The present exorbitant prices of many

of the necessaries of life, are certainly the effects of our former conduct. It appears, under the present existing circumstances, that the inhabitants of Ireland, in their relative situations, will be injured. The failure of the last crop, not only of flax, but also of corn, is seen and felt by all, and its effects, at a few months distance, will certainly be worse. Many thousands of men and women will be idle for want of materials to work upon, if a foreign supply be not speedily procured. The scarcity of flax, notwithstanding the encouragement given by Government, in erecting machines for converting this valuable commodity into ropes, for the use of the Navy, is a serious grievance under which the peasantry of this kingdom at present labour. Another public grievance is the dearth and scarcity of timber, whereby all repairs and improvements in building are greatly retarded, and without a speedy supply must in a great measure be suspended altogether. While the present war continues we can expect no flaxseed in the ensuing spring; and how the poor industrious inhabitants of Ireland will be able to pay their rents, tythes, and taxes, is a matter of serious consideration. Another effect of the war is scarcity of gold. For several years past the blood and treasure of these kingdoms have been wasting like snow on a rock, beneath the meridian sun. How many millions of money have been spent in subsidizing the different Powers of Europe, which have proved in a great measure abortive of restoring peace and harmony to Europe! How much has been also spent in fitting out expeditions, which have often failed as to their intention, notwithstanding the superior skill and conduct of their leaders. How many thousands of lives have been lost in these enterprizes, spreading calamity and distress over many a domestic circle. When we consider how many strenuous efforts we have made towards the reduction of the French Ruler, not sparing our blood and treasure, nor even our character; and at the same time observe how ineffectual all these endeavours have been, it becomes us to apply to the only remedy, *peace*.

If we duly weigh the foregoing considerations, with many more not mentioned, I presume it will appear to be our duty, in our several stations, whether high or low, from the peasant to the rulers of counties and districts, to petition the Parliament to procure for us the blessings of peace. We are informed by the sacred penman, that an æra speedily will arrive, when nation shall not rise up against nation, nor learn the cursed art of war; when they shall beat their swords into plough shares, and their spears into pruning-hooks. We are also informed, that blessed are the peace-makers, for they shall be called the children of God.

Dec. 12, 1808. B. A.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

PERMIT me to add a few concise remarks (from the works of a well-known author) to those of your ingenious Correspondent, who signs himself "A Friend," in your valuable Magazine for last month, on the subject of "Duelling;" which, as a punishment, is absurd; because, it is an equal chance whether the punishment fall upon the offender, or the person offended. Nor is it much better as a reparation; it being difficult to explain in what the satisfaction consists, or how it tends to undo the injury, or to afford a compensation for the damage already sustained.

"Murder is forbidden, and wherever human life is deliberately taken away, otherwise than by public authority, there is murder. If unauthorized laws of honour be allowed to create exceptions to divine prohibitions, there is an end to all morality, as founded on the will of the Deity, and the obligation of every duty may at one time or other be discharged by the caprice and fluctuations of fashion. But a sense of shame is so much torture, and no relief presents itself otherwise than by an attempt upon the life of our adversary." What then? the distresses which men suffer by the want of money is oftentimes extreme, and no resource can be discovered but that of removing the life, which stands between the distressed person and his inheritance.

"The motive in this case is as urgent, and the means much the same as in the former, yet this case finds no advocate.

"Take away the circumstance of the duellist's exposing his own life, and it becomes assassination; add this circumstance, and what difference does it make? None but this, that fewer perhaps, will imitate the example, and human life will be more safe, when it cannot be attacked without equal danger to the aggressor's own.

"Public opinion is not easily controlled by civil institutions; for which reason I question whether any regulations can be contrived of sufficient force to suppress or change the rule of honour, which stigmatizes all scruples about duelling, with the reproach of cowardice. The insufficiency of redress which the law of the land affords for those injuries which chiefly affect a man's sensibility and reputation, tempts many to redress themselves. Prosecutions for such offences, by the trifling damages that are received, serve only to make the sufferer more ridiculous. This ought to be remedied.

"For the army, where the point of honour is cultivated with exquisite attention and refinement, I would establish *a court of honour*, with a power of awarding those submissions and acknowledgments, which it is generally the purpose of a challenge to obtain, and it might grow into a fashion with persons of rank of all professions, to refer their quarrels to this tribunal.

"But if this should fail, rather than let such a barbarous custom continue amongst us, I would have recourse to the law established by Frederick the Great; "I would make the champions continue the contest till one of them was killed, and I would hang the survivor."

A FRIEND TO SOCIETY.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

A MIRROR FOR REPRESENTATIVES.

ON looking over some old papers lately, I met with the following address of the late William Brownlow, to the freeholders of the county of Armagh. I well remember his manner of acting at the election which ensued. He made no canvass, and brought up no tallies, while the voters for the two rival candidates, between whom the contest lay, agreed in giving to him their suffrages. He sat in a dignified manner, receiving from both sides, the homage due to virtue, and his long faithful services, of which he says no more than what was strictly due in this Address. I remember it was objected by some little minds at the time, that he acted with too much hauteur on the occasion, but it was the conscious dignity of virtue, and a just reliance on his integrity. I revive the circumstance now, as an attempt to fan the embers of that spirit of independence which is in danger of becoming extinct. Certain untoward circumstances, have caused the spirit of virtuous independence to become unfashionable. I wish for its revival as connected with the best interests of man. Here is an excellent lesson for Representatives, that they in like manner may surrender their trust, supported by a sense of conscious rectitude. But alas! how few are qualified to act a similar part. Many of them are too fond of the favours of the crown, or of the minister, to be faithful servants to the people, and thus the popular branch of our Constitution is in some danger of being lost.

K.

"TO THE FREEHOLDERS OF THE COUNTY OF ARMAGH,

"*Gentlemen*,

"I HAVE now served you six-and-thirty years, and can with a safe conscience assert, that I never in that time attempted to apply the sacred trust you reposed in me to my own interest or advantage in any shape whatever, but acted with constant diligence and attention to the utmost of my power for the public service. Relying upon this, and confident from the very honourable marks of approbation I had at several times received, that my proffer of service would be as pleasing to you as it was to myself, I again tendered it; though, had I consulted only my ease, retirement would have better suited me. I cannot suppose that at my time of life and length of service you could require or expect personal solicitation; I am not equal to the fatigue; and indeed what had I to solicit, but a farther opportunity to serve you and the public, as far as I was able, at the expense of much labour and assiduity? for certainly my own private advantage was in no sort concerned.

"I have ever looked upon the honour

of representing a free people, in the manner I have so many years enjoyed it, as the highest I could obtain; I never desire it on other terms. I will not urge any man to give me a vote that does not proceed from his heart. Look back at my conduct and see how you have been served; see whether I have not been forward to promote every advantage that the nation has received since I have been your Representative. The freeing her Constitution from the dependence in which it was so long held—shortening the duration of Parliaments, which is a proper check on the conduct of the Representative—extending the freedom of Trade, and encouraging the Linen in every branch: in short, every thing that was done or attempted for the advantage of this country had my warmest support. However, if you are of opinion, that you can be better served by any other man, avail yourselves of your privilege, and elect him; far be it from me to wish the Freedom of Election should be cramped. I shall neither be jealous of his situation nor accuse you of ingratitude; but if inclination, gratitude, or public spirit should induce you to place your confidence again in me, long experience may have convinced you that you will not be deceived.

"I have now made known my sentiments and the ground on which I proceed; nothing remains for me but to wait with respectful submission for your determination; these are the only means by which I shall attempt your favour. Be assured it shall never be laid to my charge, that I have corrupted the morals of the county, by using any of the arts too frequent at Elections. If I can do the county service, my ambition is gratified; I am not the man to injure it for any consideration whatever. Let my situation in life be what it may, I shall ever remain a steady friend to my country, and never forfeit the character of an honest, uncorrupt man, which I thank God I have firmly established.

"I am Gentlemen, with every sentiment of duty and respect, Your very faithful and obedient humble servant,

"W. BROWNLOW."

Dublin, April 17, 1790.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

HISTORY OF TYTHES.

AMONG the great variety of subjects that have occupied the columns of the Belfast News-papers for the last year, few have been more conspicuous than Tithes. The public have seen many publications complaining of the system as injurious to agriculture, and oppressive to that numerous and useful body of men, the land-holders; and an equal number at least contending for the propriety and continuance of the Tithe laws as they now stand.

The subject was introduced by a complaint from the grand Jury of Armagh against the exorbitant exactions of some clergymen in that county; the reply of the clergy and most of the subsequent publications seem to have treated it with too much asperity to produce conviction on the minds of the parties, and the contest was maintained more with the appearance of indulging in reflections, than with a view to remove prejudices, and place the subject in a clear point of view.

If we consider the great length of time that Tithes have been established as a legal mode of support for the clergy, and that the certainty of their continuance must have operated as a strong inducement to many of them to qualify themselves for the office, and relinquish every other prospect of maintenance that might have been open to them, we shall not be much surprized at their being alarmed at any proposal for abolishing or altering them; it is natural for a man to be tenacious of what he conceives to be his property, and cautious of countenancing any thing that he imagines may have a tendency to injure it.

These considerations ought to incline every moderate man to make great allowances for the objections of the clergy to a commutation or other alteration proposed to be made in the Tithe laws. They have a legal claim to Tithes. They have been long in their possession, and until they are satisfied that the alteration will not be a loss to them, they are at least entitled to the liberty of stating their objections.

Complaints have been made, and probably on good grounds, that some clergymen are rigorous and exorbitant in the exaction of their demands, and that their conduct has a certain tendency to sour the minds of the people against them, and even make them dissatisfied with the government that countenances them, but these complaints, it must be acknowledged, attach only to a small part of the clerical body in this province at least, and ought not to be applied to the whole, since it must be admitted that the generality of them do not receive nor even demand the tenth of the produce which the law would actually permit them to take, and which in England, I am informed, is in many districts strictly demanded, not only for corn, but for milk, pigs, eggs, poultry and other smaller matters, which in this country we know nothing of.

Having made these prefatory observations, I will proceed to consider the subject of Tithe as to its origin, continuance, and effects, both in former and present times. The first legal or national establishment of Tithes that we read of, was under the Jewish dispensation, and appears to have been an equitable institution: the tribe of Levi having been appointed for the exercise of religious functions only, were debarred from their share of the lands divided amongst the other tribes, that they might not be incumbered with secular concerns, and the tenth of the whole allotted them as a compensation for it. The officiating Priests received only one tenth of that Tithe, and another portion of it was appropriated to the relief of the poor, the widow, and orphan. This establishment, however, appears to have ended with the Jewish theocracy; for, at the commencement of the Christian era, and for several centuries afterwards, there is not a trace of Tithes existing in the Christian church, nor was it introduced until the professors of Christianity in general, and the ministers of it in particular were corrupted by the love of power, and of money, when by the accession of Constantine, it became the established religion of the state: yet even then, and for some centuries afterwards, one fourth part of the Tithe only was claimed by the officiating clergy, as appears by the writings of several historians.

Blackstone in his commentaries vol. 1. page 384, says, "At the first establishment of parochial clergy, the tithes of the parish were distributed in a four-fold division, one for the use of the Bishop, another for maintaining the fabrick of the church, a third for the poor, and a fourth to provide for the incumbent. When the sees of the Bishops became otherwise amply endowed, the Bishops were prohibited from demanding their usual share of the Tithes, and the division was into three parts only." In process of time, when superstition had extended its influence even over the minds of Kings, the priests had the address to prevail on them to direct their subjects to pay the whole of the Tithe into their hands, and to induce the people to comply with the demand more readily, they invented many ridiculous stories, one of which is related to have issued from a synod held at Frankfort in the year 794, in a capitulary, which asserts, "that in the last famine the ears of corn were found to contain no seed, the infernal spirits having devoured it all, and that those spirits were heard to reproach the people with not having paid Tithe."

It would tire the patience of the reader, and exceed the limits of a Magazine, were I to transcribe all the instances which history furnishes us with, of the deceptions practised on the people by the priests of former superstitious times to secure to themselves the exclusive possession of Tithes, yet I cannot resist the inclination to give one quotation from Selden's History of Tithes, page 109, as another singular instance of it.

"In the reign of Henry VI. in the 15th century, a penitential was made for the use and direction of priests in their auricular confessions as follows. "Hast thou truly paid thy tithings and offerings to holy church? Thou art to understand that at the beginning of the world, Adam was directed to give to God the tenth part of every thing: God bade him to teach his children to do the same.

Adam had two sons, Cain and Abel. Abel tithed truly, and of the best: Cain tithed falsely and of the worst. At last the false tither Cain slew his brother, because Abel blamed Cain, and said he tithed falsely, wherefore God cursed Cain and all the Earth: so you now see that false Tithing was the cause of the first manslaughter that ever was, and it was the cause why God cursed the Earth."

In this manner, in times of superstition and priest-craft, the doctrine of Tithes was preached up, and by this means they were introduced into these countries, and became a law, and passing from the reign of one King to the government of another, they obtained their present footing.

Now if we look into the origin of tithes, and the manner in which they have been handed down to us, there is not much room to plead for them on the score of antiquity; and since the claim to them on divine right is given up, they stand not on ground too high to exempt them from the inspection of an enlightened age, nor the alterations of a British Legislature. Laws which have been suitable in one age may not be found to answer in another. Change of times often requires a change in the laws. It is not uncommon for a Parliament to repeal an act in one session that had been made by itself in a preceding one.

In an act passed in the reign of Henry the Eighth, enjoining the payment of tithe, it is offered as a reason, "that it seemed just that those who received from the clergy spiritual things, should communicate to them temporal things." Whatever claim to equity this law might have had at a time when the great majority of the people were of the national church, it loses that claim, and cannot be equitably applied to a country where not more than one eighth of the inhabitants are so. Here then is one ground on which it is alledged the legislature ought to take up the subject of tithe, and make some alteration in it that would be more equitable in its operation, and less obnoxious to the people. Its injurious effects on agriculture stand also prominent among the objections raised against it: many eminent men have employed their pens in pointing out the injury: The celebrated Arthur Younge, whose exertions in husbandry are not exceeded by any, and whose practical knowledge of it constitutes him a competent judge of whatever promotes or retards it, makes no scruple in asserting, "that tythes, of all other taxes, are the most obstructive to the progress of tillage." The ingenious Archdeacon Paley, speaking of it, says, "of all institutions which are adverse to cultivation and improvement, none are so obnoxious as that of tithes." And again, "Tithes are a tax, not only upon industry, but upon that industry that feeds mankind: the burden of the tax falls with its chief, if not its whole weight upon tillage, upon that precise mode of cultivation, which it is the business of the state to relieve and remunerate in preference to all others."

Were I to quote all that has been written by men of the first talents and best information, against this tax, it would constitute a volume, whilst it would shew, that dissatisfaction with tithe is not peculiar to the people of this country, nor the discouragements to agriculture, so much complained of, exclusively felt by the landholders of Ireland.

There is yet one consideration which I think ought above all others to have the greatest weight with the wise and moderate among the clergy, in disposing them to desire a change in the tithing system, and that is, the effect that the present mode has on the minds of the people; they know that the very nature and end of their appointment, and for which tithe is allotted them, is the instruction and improvement of mankind in religion and morality—and that to effect this, it is absolutely necessary that the teachers should possess the love and good opinion of those they teach, because, if this is not the case, there is no probability that their instructions, however good, will have their proper weight, and consequently the very end of their appointment will be defeated. It cannot be a wise and judicious mode of support, which gives separate interests to the clergy and their

bearers; a mode which annually brings into view the loss which the landholder sustains by the present establishment, and renews the animosity naturally resulting from his finding the demand encrease in proportion to the encrease of his industry, and the money he has employed in improving his land.

Many of the clergy, from their connections, talents, and education, are, or ought to be respectable, yet this respectability is often lessened, if not destroyed, by the present tything system, which by placing them at variance with the people, casts a shade over their good qualities; besides this, there is something extremely degrading to men of good sense and character, to be made dependant for support on a tax, levied by themselves off the lower classes of the people, all of whom give it with reluctance, and many of whom are scarcely able, by their utmost exertions, to procure a scanty subsistence for their families, and who never fail to execrate that man who wrests from them a portion of their hard earned substance.

These are certainly great objections to the continuance of the present mode of supporting the clergy, and ought to induce them to unite in a solicitation to the legislature, for some alteration that would be more favourable to themselves, and less obnoxious to the people. What is there in tithe that should incline them to prefer it to all other modes of support? Is not £500 a year, well secured by some other establishment, as good as £500 by tithe? and preferable, by being divested of all the evils and inconveniences of the latter?

They have no occasion to be afraid to trust the care of their concerns into the hands of Government and Parliament, who, if they change the mode, are not likely to lessen the means of support.—Surely every good and moderate clergyman ought to rejoice at the prospect of an alteration that would free him from a share of the odium indiscriminately brought on the whole body, by the exorbitant demands, and rigorous exactions of some of their order; and which, by removing the cause of disagreement between them and the people, would open to him the means of obtaining all the love and respect due to his usefulness, and the goodness of his character.

Y.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

IT does not strike me, that your Correspondent P. has explained a passage in Horace's Ode, Lib. 1st. and I must confess myself equally dissatisfied with the meanings contended for by D'Acier and Sanadon. The term *Matres*, may be considered here as including females in the different capacities of mothers and married women. To say *that Wars are hateful* to women merely as mothers can scarcely be considered as the meaning of the passage; to confine it to the other sense is wholly inadmissible. Sanadon too has unwarily enough thrown out a severe sarcasm on the married state by limiting *his sense* of the term *Matres* to young *unmarried women*, and seems pretty strongly to imply a hint, that had the marriage ceremony taken place, their anxiety would have been considerably abated.

The quotation from Virgil appears to me, (with the view I have of the passage) not sufficient to illustrate the meaning of Horace. It seems to confine the detestation of war in some measure to those mothers whose children are not of an advanced age. The image is not at all similar, as those mothers would then only be alluded to who were most likely to be directly molested by the ravages of war. The detestation mentioned by Horace, is a dislike permanent and arising from a consideration of the miseries of such a state of things, and widely different from the sudden impulse of natural feeling expressed by the mother in Virgil. I fully agree with P. in the marked difference that exists between Akenside and Virgil in their application of this maternal impulse: however, that it has been a favourite theme of many poets cannot serve the cause one way or the other, for we ought to remember that these poets have been neither mothers nor married women. We may also recollect, that Homer (an authority

on which we may safely rely in ascertaining the *scale* of human passions) makes Andromache express more tender regard for her husband than for *Astyanax*: the whole interview indeed might be adduced as an Elucidation of a passage in Horace. I am, Sir, yours, &c. W.

Newry December 4th, 1808.

P. S. I must assure P. that I controvert the meaning of the passage merely with a view to *elucidate*, not to *combat*. I wish and hope he may consider this communication in the same light.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

AN account of the new discoveries in chemistry, particularly the decomposition of alkalies, and the formation of the two substances, Potassium and Sodaum, by means of the Galvanic Batteries, by Professor Davy, of the Royal Institution, as communicated by him to the Royal Society of London.*

Mr. Davy first described the methods made use of for the decomposition of fixed alkalies, and he found that the powers of electrical decompositions were proportional to the strength of the opposite electricities in the circuit, and to the conducting power and degree of concentration of the materials employed. In his first attempts at the decomposition of the fixed alkalies, he acted upon aqueous solutions of potash and soda, saturated at the common degrees of temperature, with the Voltaic batteries, but in these cases the water alone was affected, and hydrogen and oxygen disengaged, with the production of much heat and violent effervescence. As water appeared to prevent the decomposition, he used potash in igneous fusion, and some brilliant phenomena were produced, and when the platina spoon on which the potash was placed was made to communicate with the negative side of the battery, and the connection from the positive side was made with platina wire, a vivid and constant light appeared at the opposite point: there was no effect of inflammation round it; but aëriform bubbles, which inflamed in the atmosphere, rose round the potash. He made some attempts to collect the combustible matter, but without success; he only attained his object, by employing electricity as the common agent of fusion and decomposition.

Pot-ash, when perfectly dried by ignition, is a non-conductor; but with the slightest addition of moisture, becomes a good conductor, and in this state it readily fuses and decomposes by strong electrical powers. Having placed a small piece of pure pot-ash, on an insulated disk of platina, connected with the negative side of the battery, and a platina wire communicating with the positive side being brought in contact with the upper surface of the alkali, a vivid action almost instantly took place; the pot-ash fused at both points of electrization; there was a violent effervescence at the upper surface; at the lower, or negative surface, there was no liberation of elastic fluid; but small globules having a high metallic lustre, similar in visible characters to mercury, appeared; some of which burnt with explosion and bright flame, as soon as they were formed, and others remained, and were merely tarnished, and finally covered with a white film, which formed on their surfaces.

"These globules," says the professor, "numerous experiments soon showed to be the substance I was in search of, and a peculiar inflammable principle, the basis of pot-ash." He ascertained that the platina was not at all connected with the result, for the same substance was produced when other metals, or charcoal, were employed for completing the circuit.

Soda, when acted upon in a similar manner, exhibited an analogous result, but it required a battery of strong powers. The substance produced from pot-ash, which is now denominated "Potassium," remained fluid at the temperature of the atmosphere, at the time of its production; that from soda, called "Sodaum," which was fluid, in the degree of heat of the alkali during its formation, became solid on cooling. The globules often burnt at the moment of their formation, and sometimes violently exploded and separated into smaller globules, which flew with great velocity through the air, in a

* This analysis is taken from the last number of Philips' Monthly Magazine.

state of vivid combustion, producing a beautiful effect of continued jets of fire.

In speaking of the theory, Mr. Davy observed, "that the metallic lustre of the substance from Potash immediately became destroyed in the atmosphere, and that a white crust formed upon it." This crust is pure potash, which immediately deliquesced, and new quantities were formed, which in their turn, attracted moisture from the atmosphere, till the whole globule disappeared, and assumed the form of a saturated solution of potash. Water is likewise decomposed in the process, for it is demonstrated that the basis of the fixed alkalies, that is "Potassium and Sodaum," act upon this substance with greater energy than any other known bodies. Hence the minute theory of oxydation of the basis of the alkalies in the air is this; oxygen gas is first attracted by them, and alkali formed; this alkali speedily absorbs water, this water is again decomposed; therefore, during the conversion of a globule into alkaline solution, there is a constant and rapid disengagement of small quantities of gas. From the facts related, of which we mention only a part, it is inferred by Mr. Davy, that there is the same evidence for the decomposition of potash and soda into oxygen and two peculiar substances, as there is for the decompositions of sulphuric and phosphoric acids, and the metallic oxydes into oxygen and their respective bases. In the analysis, no substances capable of decomposition are present, but the alkalies and a minute portion of moisture, which seems in no other way essential to the result, than in rendering them conductors at the surface; for he has ascertained that the new substances are not generated, till the interior, which is dry, begins to be fused.

The combustible bases of the fixed alkalies seem to be repelled as other combustible substances by positively electrified surfaces, and attracted by negatively electrified surfaces, and the oxygen follows the contrary order; or, the oxygen being naturally possessed of the negative energy, and the bases of the positive, do not remain in combination, when either of them is brought into an electrical state opposite to its natural one.

After Mr. Davy detected the bases of the fixed alkalies, he found great difficulty in preserving and confining them so as to examine their properties, but he found that in recently distilled naphtha, they might be preserved some days without much change. The basis of pot-ash at 60° of Fahrenheit possessed the general appearance of mercury, so as not to be distinguished from it; but at that degree of temperature, it is only imperfectly fluid: at 70° it is more fluid, and at 100° its fluidity is perfect, so that different globules will run into one. At 50° it is soft and malleable, with the lustre of polished silver, and at the freezing point it becomes harder and brittle, and when broken into fragments, exhibits a crystallized texture, which by means of the microscope, seems composed of beautiful facets of a perfect whiteness, and high metallic splendor. At a heat approaching redness, it is converted into vapour, and is found unaltered after distillation. It is a perfect conductor of electricity.

When a spark is taken by the Voltaic battery from a large globule, the light is green, and combustion takes place at the point of contact only. When a small globule is used, it is completely dissipated with explosion, accompanied by a most vivid flame. It is an excellent conductor of heat; but resembling the metals in all these sensible properties, it is very different from any of them in specific gravity, being only as 6 to 10 compared with water, so that it is the lightest fluid body known.

With respect to chemical relations, it combines with oxygen slowly and without flame at all temperatures below that of vaporization; but at this temperature combustion takes place, and the light is of brilliant whiteness, and the heat intense. When a globule is heated in hydrogen gas, at a degree below its point of vaporization, it seems to dissolve in it, for the globule diminishes in volume, and the gas explodes with alkaline fumes and bright light, when suffered to pass into the air. When brought into contact with water, it decomposes it with great violence, an instantaneous explosion is produced with bright flame, and a solution of pure pot-ash is the result. When a globule of this subtance is placed upon ice, it instantly burns with a bright

flame, and a deep hole is made in the ice, which is found to contain a solution of pot-ash.

Theory—The phœnomena seem to depend on the strong attraction of the potassium for oxygen; and of the potash for water. The heat which arises from two causes, decomposition and combination, is sufficiently intense to produce inflammation. The production of alkali in the decomposition of water by potassium, is shown by dropping a globule of it upon moistened paper, tinged with turmeric. At the moment that the globule comes into contact with the water it burns, and moves rapidly upon the paper, as if in search of moisture, leaving behind it a deep reddish brown trace, and acting upon the paper as dry caustic potash.

So strong is the attraction of potash for oxygen, and so great the energy of its action upon water, that it discovers and decomposes the small quantities of water contained in alcohol and ether. Potash is insoluble in ether, but when potassium, the basis, is thrown into it, oxygen is furnished, and hydrogen gas is disengaged, and the alkali, as it forms, renders the ether white and turbid. In ether and alcohol, the energy of its action is proportioned to the quantity of water they contain, and hydrogen and pot-ash are the constant result. Potassium thrown into solutions of the mineral acids, inflames and burns on the surface. It readily combines with the simple and inflammable solids, and with metals, with phosphorus and sulphur, forming compounds similar to the metallic phosphurets and sulphurets. When it is brought into contact with a piece of phosphorus, and pressed upon, there is a considerable action; they become fluid together, burn, and produce phosphate of potash. When potassium is brought into contact with sulphur in fusion in the atmosphere, a great inflammation takes place, and sulphuret of potash is formed. The sulphuretted basis becomes oxygenated by exposure to the air, and is finally converted into sulphate. When one part of potassium is added to eight or ten parts of mercury, at about 60° of Fahrenheit, they instantly unite, and form a substance like mercury in colour, but less coherent, and small portions of it appear as flattened spheres. When a globule is made to touch a globule of mercury about twice as large, they combine with heat; the compound is fluid at the temperature of its formation, but when cool it appears as a solid metal, similar in colour to silver. If the potassium be still increased, the amalgam becomes harder and brittle. When the proportions are one of potassium to seventy of mercury, the amalgam is soft and malleable. If the compounds are exposed to air, they rapidly absorb oxygen; potash which deliquesces is formed, and in a few minutes the mercury is found pure and unaltered.—When a globule of amalgam is thrown into water, it rapidly decomposes it, with a hissing noise; potash is formed, pure hydrogen is disengaged, and the mercury remains free. The action of potassium upon the inflammable oily compound bodies, confirms the other facts of the strength of its attraction for oxygen. On recently distilled naphtha that has been exposed to the air, it soon oxydates, and alkali is formed, which unites with the naphtha into a brown soap that collects round the globule. On concrete and fixed oils, when heated, it acts slowly, coaly matter is deposited, a little gas is evolved, and a soap is formed. By heat it rapidly decomposes the volatile oils.

Potassium readily reduces metallic oxydes when heated in contact with them; it decomposes readily flint and green glass with a gentle heat; alkali is immediately formed by oxygen from the oxydes, which dissolves the glass, and a new surface is soon exposed to the agent.

We shall in our next give a more detailed account of the decomposition of soda.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

PARAMYTHIA; FROM THE GERMAN OF HERDER.

THE following fables from the Greek mythology, which have already appeared in the Monthly Repository of Theology, seem to possess sufficient merit to recommend them to the perusal of the readers of our Miscellany.—They are taken from the Zersheute Blätter, and are introduced with the following remarks.

Herder says he has called them *Paramythia* in imitation of the modern Greeks, who according to *Guyen*, gives this term to the tales and fables, in the relation of which they pass away their time. Παραμυθον also means *recreation*. Further, these fictions are founded on the old Grecian fable μυθος, into which the author has thrown a new sense and import: so much for the title.

Herder seriously recommends this new casting of Grecian fictions as an exercise of the taste and imagination of young persons. It may indeed be objected that frequent compositions of this description might diminish the reverence with which we justly contemplate these poetical fragments of ancient wisdom, and destroy the harmony and consistency of the whole. To which it may be replied, that the beauty of the Grecian mythos is inherent, and not conventional or dependent on our belief of their antiquity, and that no modern fiction could assimilate itself with them, which does not resemble them in significance and beauty. The Paramythia are in prose, and have no other ornament of style than that of full and well turned periods. Herder cites in vindication of simplicity of language in compositions of this sort, the elegant Greek distich—

Beauteous art thou Aglaia, embellishing all things around thee;
Beauteous art thou adorn'd: naked, thou'rt beauty itself. H.C.R.

1. *Aurora.*

A troop of joyful maidens celebrated with dances and songs of praise the feast of *Aurora*. "Thou, the most beauteous and most blessed of the goddesses," they sung, "arisest each morning in the beauty of endless youth, and with the hue of the rose, bathed in the spring of all delight and of the enlivening blossoms." Even as the sun arose, Aurora turned her team towards them, and stood before them the most beautiful but not the most blessed of the Goddesses. Tears stood in her eyes, and the misty veil which she had drawn from the earth, lay like a damp cloud on her shining and rosy coloured forehead.

"Ye children," said she, "who honour me with songs of praise, your youthful innocence has drawn me hither, that I may show myself to you as I am. Whether I am beautiful, you may see yourselves; whether I am happy, may those tears speak, which I daily shed in the lap of my sister Flora. In my youth I thoughtlessly united myself with the aged *Titan*, from whose arms ye behold me every morning so early hastening. As a punishment for him and me, his grey immortality is without youth, and it robs me too of beauty and splendour as long as I am by him. For this reason do I so early hasten to my short employment of driving away the shadows, and I conceal myself during the day in sun-beams, till Titan sees me, when he instantly drags me down into his grey bed, weeping and blushing for shame.—Take warning from me, ye maidens, nor believe that the most beautiful among ye must be the most happy, if she be not as wise as she is fair, and choose for her felicity a spouse of her own condition."

Aurora vanished, but her image shone again in the eyes of the maidens, in each tear-drop of the dew. They no longer celebrated her as the wisest, because she was the most beauteous of the goddesses, and they became wise through her example.

2. *Flora's Choice.*

As Jupiter summoned before him in ideal forms, the creation he had resolved to make, he winked, and there appeared before him among others, the gaudy *Flora*. Who can describe her charms? Who can paint her beauty? All that the earth had borne in her virgin lap was collected in the stature, form, colour, and garments of Flora; all the gods looked upon her; all the goddesses envied her beauty.

"Choose," said Jupiter, "a partner from among this numerous assembly of gods and genii, but beware vain child, that thy choice do not deceive thee."

Flora looked with levity around; and would that she had chosen Phœbus who burned with love towards her! But his beauty was too high for the maiden, his passion was too silent. She cast a rapid glance a-

round her, and chose—who could have expected it?—one of the lowest of the gods, the volatile *Zephyrus*.

"Senseless!" exclaimed the father of the gods, "that thy sex even in its diviner forms should prefer each wanton and fascinating charm to a higher and more silent love. Hadst thou chosen him (pointing to Phœbus) thou and thy whole race had shared with him immortality. But now, enjoy thy consort." Zephyrus embraced her, and she vanished. As flower-dust she was lost in the region of the god of air.

As Jupiter brought the ideal forms of his world into existence, and the womb of the earth was before him, ready to bring forth into life the scattered dust; he called aloud to Zephyrus who slumbered over the ashes of his beloved. "Arise! arise! O youth! bring thy beloved here, and behold her earthly appearance." Zephyrus came and with him the flower dust: it was at once scattered ove the surface of the earth. Phœbus through ancient love animated it. The goddesses of the springs and streams, for sisterly affection, penetrated it. Zephyrus embraced it, and Flora appeared transformed into a thousand many-coloured budding flowers.

Each of them rejoiced as she recognised again her celestial lover and resigned herself to his wanton kiss, in his gently-waving arms. But the joy was short; as soon as the fair one had unfolded her bosom and had prepared her bridal bed in all the charms of perfume and colour: the satiated Zephyrus left her; and Phœbus who took compassion on her too kind and easily deceived love, by his consuming beam, put an early period to her sufferings.

Each spring, ye maidens, renews this history. Ye bloom like Flora, choose some other partner than Zephyrus.

3. *Echo.*

Do not believe it, ye children of simplicity; do not believe the poet's fable, that modest Echo ever solicited the vain Narcissus, or was ever the loquacious betrayer of her goddess. Listen to me and I will relate the true history of Echo.

Harmonia, the daughter of love, was an active assistant of Jupiter in his work of creation. With maternal tenderness she imparted to the newly formed being, a tone, a note, which penetrates into the depths of his bosom, binds his whole existence together, and connects him with all kindred beings. At length she had exhausted herself, the beneficent mother! and being by her birth but half an immortal, was forced to abandon her children. How deeply did her departure afflict her! she fell down before the throne of Jupiter and prayed:—"Powerful God! let my form vanish from before the heavenly beings, but do not annihilate my heart and my feelings, and do not separate me from those to whom I have given existence from my own bosom: let me at least be invisible among them, and participate and feel with them each tone of joy and sorrow, with which I endowed them, happy or unhappy."

"And will it ease thee," answered the god, "to feel their wretchedness invisibly, and be unable to aid them or in any way be seen by them? This is denied thee by the irrevocable sentence of destiny."

"Let me but answer them," she replied, "let me but be able to repeat the tones which issue from their breasts, and my maternal heart will be comforted."

Jupiter touched her gently, and she became the formless and widely spread *Echo*. Wherever a tone from one of her children is heard, the heart of the mother resounds in sympathy.—With the consonance of an harmonious soul, she produces from every creature, every fraternal being, the notes of sorrow and of joy. By her the hard rock is penetrated, by her the solitary wood is animated. And how often hast thou not, thou tender mother, thou bashful inhabitant of solitude and the silent grove, exhilarated me more than the barren circles of men, from whose hearts and whose souls no tones are emitted!

4. *The dying Swan.*

"Must I alone be without song and dumb," said the silent Swan, sighing, as he bathed himself in the splendour of the setting sun, "I al-

most alone, in the whole kingdom of feathered swarms. It is not the clucking hen, or the prattling goose, or the screaming peacock, whose voice I desire; but the gentle Philomela, thee I envy when enchanted by thy magic notes, I more slowly circuit the lake, and fascinated, loiter amid the glories of the scene. How would I sing thee, thou golden evening sun, thy beauteous light and my felicity; dying, I would plunge beneath the mirror of thy rose-like forehead."

In silent rapture the Swan dived below, and as he rose again upon the surface, he beheld on the shore a shining form, which benignly invited him to approach. It was the god of the morning and evening sun, the beautiful Phœbus. "Chaste and lovely being," said he, "the prayer is granted thee, which thou hast so often nourished in thy silent breast and which could not be granted till now." He had scarcely said these words when he touched the Swan with his lyre, and tuned upon it the music of the immortals. The tones pierced with rapture the bird of Apollo, who in grateful joy and in harmony with the god of beauty, sang the beautiful sun, and the splendid sea, and his innocent and blissful life. His harmonious song was soft as his form, it lasted in slow and gently enslumbering notes till he found himself again in his true and heavenly beauty, at the foot of Apollo in Elysium. The song which was denied him in life was given him in death, it was destined gently to dissolve his corporeal limbs, for he had then heard the music of the immortals and had seen the visage of a god. He gratefully clung to the foot of Apollo, and was hearkening to his divine notes, as his faithful spouse arrived, who had in mournful strains sang herself into Elysium. The goddess of innocence adopted both as her favourites; she places them in the yoke before her car, when she bathes in the sea of youth.

Be patient, silent and hoping heart! what is denied thee in life, because thou canst not yet endure it, is given thee in the hour of thy dissolution.

5. *The Lily and the Rose.*

Tell me, ye benign daughters of the coarse and black soil, who gave you your beautiful form? for in truth ye have been modeled by no inelegant fingers. What tiny spirits sprang out of your calixes? and what joy did ye feel as goddesses rocked themselves on your leaves? Tell me ye peaceful flowers, how did they share together the delightful employment? and how did they confer together as they spun threads so various, and wove and embroidered with such fantastic grace. But ye are silent ye children of love, and are content in silence to enjoy your existence.—Be it so; instructive fable shall teach me what your tongues conceal.

The earth stood once a naked rock; when behold, a friendly band of nymphs trod upon the virgin soil, and courteous genii offered themselves to adorn the naked rock. They divided their employment among each other. Even under snow and amid cold unseemly grasses, modest *Humility* began and wove the returing violet. *Hope* followed her and filled with cooling vapours the little calix of the refreshing *Hyacinth;* these succeeding so well, there now came a proud and pompous train of gaudy fair ones; the tulip raised her head; the narcissus looked around with eyes languishing in vain.

Many other nymphs and goddesses busied themselves in various ways adorning the earth and triumphing over its splendid show.

And now as a larger portion of their works and their own joy over them were faded, Venus addressed the graces, "And why do you delay, sisters of joy?" said she, "arise and weave out of your charms too, a mortal and visible blossom." They descended to the earth, and Aglaia, the grace of innocence, formed the lily; Thalia and Euphrosyne weaved with sisterly hand the flower of joy and of love, the virgin rose.

Many flowers of the field and of the garden envied each other; the rose and the lily envied none and were envied by all. Sister-like they bloom together upon one stem, and adorn each other. The flower of innocence heightens the charms of the bride of love and joy: for sister graces have woven them inseparably together.

On your cheeks too, ye maidens, bloom lilies and roses; may their creators and mistresses, Innocence, Love and Joy, in like manner attend you united and inseparable.

6. *Sleep.*

Among the innumerable Genii whom Jupiter had created to amuse and delight the short time of the laborious lives of men, was found also dark *Sleep.* "To what purpose am I here," said he, contemplating his own form, "amongst my more splendid and attractive brothers? How melancholy do I appear in the chorus of the sports, the joys and the wanton caprices of love! What boots it that I am desired by the unhappy, the burden of whose sufferings I take away, and whom I relieve by gentle oblivion: but as to them who never tire, who know nought of the cares of wretchedness, the circle of whose delights I only interrupt——

"Thou errest," said the father of genii and men, "in thy dark form wilt thou become the beloved genius of all mankind, for dost thou not believe that joys and sports fatigue? In reality they tire sooner than care and wretchedness, and transform themselves for the satiated in bliss, into the most wearisome satiety."

"Neither shalt thou be without delights," he continued, "thou shalt even oft surpass all thy brothers in them." With these words he presented to him the silver-grey horn of pleasant dreams. "Scatter out of this," said he, "thy seeds of slumber, and the happy as well as unhappy shall love and wish for thee more than for all thy brothers. The ethereal hopes, the loves and the joys which lie in it, have been gathered by thy sisters the graces with enchanted hand out of our most blissful gardens. The ethereal dew which shines upon them, will animate with *his own* wish; every one whom thou meanest to render happy; and as the goddess of love has besprinkled them with our immortal nectar; hence the delight they give to mortals will be more graceful and delicate, than all the poor realities which the earth can afford. Out of the chorus of the most blooming sports and joys, they will gladly hasten into thy arms: poets will sing thee, and in their songs strive to imitate the enchantment of thy art: even the innocent maiden will wish for thee, and thou wilt rest on her eyes, a sweet and blissful deity."

The complaint of sleep was changed to triumphant thanks, and he was united *with the most beautiful* of the graces, *Pasithea.*

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ORKNEY ISLANDS,

Written in Latin by Joseph Ben, a native, in the year 1529.

THE first island is *North Ronaldsay:* To the north it is on a level with the sea, and occasions frequent shipwrecks to the English and other navigators: it is about four miles in circumference, and about sixty from Kirkwall. The people are wholly ignorant of the divine truths, because they are seldom instructed. There is great plenty of grain here, particularly barley and oats. In winter the inhabitants live on barley bread, and in summer, on small fish and milk. In the northern part of the island, very large animals, called in the native language *selchis*, are caught in hempen nets; there is also a large rock called Selchskerry, about half a mile from land, where seafowl haunt, and build their nests.

In this rock the sea monsters just now mentioned mount to the top when the sea is high, but when it falls they sink into a pit, from whence they can by no means escape, for there is no passage; the peasants finding them entrapped, collect about the rock; the monsters on seeing this rush, upon them open mouthed, attack them by main force, and as it were provoke them to the combat. If the first of these monsters be unhurt, all the rest fall upon the men with their teeth; but if the first be killed, the others take to flight, and are easily caught. I have seen fifty of them taken together.

They have no fuel but dried seaweeds and turf, which sends out very little light in the fire; the light which they use in winter is made of fishes' entrails; they sometimes make, however, an excellent fire of the dung of

their cattle, dried in the sun. Neither frogs, dormice, or toads exist here; if a ship chances to bring dormice, they immediately perish as if they were poisoned.

Sanday, 2.

So called as if the sandy isle, because it abounds with sand, it is about two miles distant from the former: this island is about twelve miles in length, and two in breadth. The English and Germans are very frequently shipwrecked here, in a part towards the east, called the Star of Lopeness.

As I was once passing through the island, and fatigued, I betook myself to a church called Holy-cross, where I saw in a cemetery a number of human heads, above a thousand, greater than any three heads of people now living, and I drew some teeth out of the gums, which were larger than filberts. I was very much surprized, and being desirous of gratifying my curiosity, I had recourse to an old man, from whom I enquired what bones these were, and why they remained unburied? he replied, my son, this island was formerly subject to the people of Stronsay, to whom we paid an annual tribute, that we might live unmolested, as we were an unwarlike nation; at length we were nearly exhausted by the payment, and began to consider how we could free ourselves from it.

Then one more prudent than the rest said; "the day of payment is at hand; let us all conceal ourselves in the church, and fall upon our enemies unawares, when they come, so that not one of them escape"—to this all assented. On the appointed day, the people of Stronsay, with their wives, sons, daughters, servants, friends, and many others, having weighed anchor and set sail with a favourable breeze, came unarmed to our shores, where, after having disembarked, they spent the greater part of the day in dancing and festivity. In the mean time the people of Sanday, we who live in this island, rushed out, and being provided with suitable weapons, we attacked them, with loud shouts and a dreadful noise, and put them all to death. Thus were we liberated, and we never paid tribute since.

Both old and young, in these two islands are so much afflicted with vermin, that they can never be cured. Rabbits are plenty here in summer, and in winter become so tame as to be caught in the houses. The common people wear shoes made of hides, fastened with a leather strap, called in the language of the country, Rifflings.

Stronsay, 3.

Stronsay, or Sdronsay, is so called, as if the Streams' isle. This island is six miles in length and four in breadth. One half of it is barren. Some of the inhabitants worship a god called Tuidas, others do not. They have great belief in fairies, and say that men dying suddenly, *spend their life with them afterwards*, but this I do not believe.

Papa Stronsay, 4.

This is but a small island at a short distance from the last mentioned, its name signifies the little Stronsay. There is but one inhabitant here. In the middle of the Island is a lake.

Auskerray, 5.

Another uncultivated island, where there is a breed of very wild horses.

Shapinshay, 6.

Shapinshay, the shipping Isle. The people living here are very impious: they worship the fairies, and other wicked beings; it is about six miles in length and two in breadth. Thither flow the seas by which sailors enter Kirkwall.

Eloerhólme, 7.

This island is now uninhabited, but the ruins of houses and marks of tillage are still visible, and also a chapel. The following is the cause of its ruin and desolation. Two brothers dwelt here, the one a believer, the other an infidel; on a dispute which arose between them, the latter accused his brother before the bishop, of cohabiting with his kinswoman; the bishop, when he had examined the cause, being greatly enraged, banished them both. Their wives, on quitting the Island, knelt down and cursed it, wherefore no one has tilled it to the present day.

Westray, 8.

Westray, or the Western isle, is the most fertile of all the Orcades: some noble families dwell here. It has also an excellent fort or castle, but it is not yet completely finished. The people of this Island having had an engagement with the Lewismen, were routed

and killed to a man. One, however, remarkable for his strength and courage, fought for a long time after his comrades were slain; but at length his legs being cut off, he was forced to take to his knees while the battle lasted. In this island there is a very high mountain.

Papa Westray, 9.

Papa Westray signifies the little Western isle; it is subject to the former isle, and equally fertile with the rest. There is a lake in the very centre of this island, and in the lake an island in which is one little kid.

Faray, 10.

Faray, the pleasant isle. This island is very suitable for cattle, particularly cows, which feed through the pastures with great melody; the boys here sing along with the cattle. The whole island abounds with grain and fishes.

Eday, 11.

Eday was formerly the richest of all the northern islands, about thirty farmers lived in it, but were so completely extirpated by some invaders, that scarcely one is left. There is a great abundance of all things, particularly cattle. The men very often have battles with great sea monsters. The island is about ten miles in circumference.

Egilschay, 12.

Egilschay, the Kirk-isle, is one mile in length and about half a mile in breadth; in it is a church dedicated to St. Magnus. This Saint was born and educated during his infancy here, and gave a house and a lot of ground to his nurse, where she has built a chapel, in which she made a chamber in the ground, with a bed, table and seat, and other things necessary for a house, all of stone; the house is now destroyed, and corn grows over the place where it was, but the furniture still remains.

Rousay, 13.

Rousay, or the island of Rauland, is a large island, but the greatest part of it is uncultivated. It is about eight miles in circumference, and has some lofty mountains, where fires are seen very often lighted up at night in a very wonderful manner, without the assistance of men.

Weir, 14.

Weir is a small island, dedicated to the apostle Peter. It is so skreened by the other islands, that it can scarcely be seen. A huge giant formerly dwelt here, the remains of whose house are yet in existence. Some say that this island was made of St. Magnus's boat, when he was escaping to the island of Egilshay.

Enhallow, 15.

Enhallow, the holy island, is very small; the antients pretended that if the corn was reaped after sunset, drops of blood would immediately flow from the stalks; others say that if a horse be tyed up here at sunset, it will be seen walking at liberty all night. But you may easily see that these are fictitious and fabulous stories.

Garsay, 16.

A small mount rises in the middle of this island. The husbandmen inhabit a small part near the sea-shore.

Damsay, 17.

In this island there is no hill; it is the most temperate of all, and is by some called Tempe. There is a church in this island, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, much frequented by women. The women here are barren, and if at any time they become pregnant, they never survive the parturition. It is said that their eyebrows sometimes drop off in the course of an hour, but are afterwards restored. This island is two miles distant from Kirkwall.

Pomonia, 18.

Pomonia, so named, as if the middle of the apple, because it lies between the north and south isles, is also called Mainland. It contains many parishes, of which the following is a description:

Dierness, or the ness of diers. This parish was formerly woody, and infested by many wild animals; but the trees were torn up by the roots by a flood, and overwhelmed. In the northern part of this parish is a natural rock in the sea, to the top of which people climb on their hands and knees with great difficulty; there is on it a chapel called the Bairns of Brugh. Men, both old and young, boys, and servants without number, flock together here from all the islands, and when they have arrived, they ascend the rock, as I have just said, barefooted, and praying, where but one at a time can come to the chapel. In it there is a pure and clear fountain, which indeed is truly wonderful. There

the men, with bent knees and uplifted hands, doubting the powers of God, pray to the Bairns of Brugh, with many incantations, throwing stones and water behind their backs, and going twice or three times round the chapel: when their prayers are done they return home, satisfied that their desires will be granted. They do not worship God here in purity.

In the year 1506, John Stewart landed in the Orkneys, and discovered a gold mine in this parish; when he had loaded two ships, and was preparing cargoes for others, and was in the mine with the workmen, a raven cried out three times with a loud voice. The leader, and some others, immediately came out, but five were left behind, upon whom the rock fell with a great crash, destroying those within, while the rest were saved.

St. Andrew. This is a large parish, abounding in grain; there is nothing remarkable recorded concerning it, except what befel a very celebrated man, called James Sinclare, who lived here, and engaged in a war with the people of Caithness, as will be mentioned hereafter. This noble general being taken, ran mad, and throwing himself into the sea, ended his life in this melancholy manner.

Holm and Paplay. These two parishes are united, and the same church serves both. Travellers going to the southern parts are ferried across from hence.

St. Olaus. This is a very flourishing and beautiful parish; in the middle of which stands a town named Kirkwall, in which is a church dedicated to St. Magnus. Here also is a castle formerly built by the Sinclares; also another church, which was burned to the ground by the English, called St. Olaus's Church, where malefactors are now buried.

The women here are much addicted to pleasure, which I attribute to the abundance of fish. In this parish is a very lofty mountain, called Wisford, whence all Pomona and the other islands are visible. It is a sign of war among the Orcades, when the fountain in its summit begins to burst forth.

Frith is another parish, where oysters are caught in abundance.

Stenhouse. In this parish is a large lake, twenty-four miles in circuit. In a sepulchre in a hillock near the lake, were found the bones of a man, joined together, fourteen feet long, as my author says, and money was found there under his head. I myself saw the sepulchre. In the same place, near a lake, are lofty and broad stones, about a spear's length in height, enclosing a circuit of about half a mile.

In the year 1527, a war arose between the people of Caithness and the Orkneys: the former invaded the island with all their forces, with spears, darts, arrows, and the sound of trumpets. But, while these things were doing, the people of Pomonia marched out to meet them, and the armies joined on a mountain of this parish near Bexwell. The invaders were all overthrown and slaughtered, so that not one escaped. The Earl's sepulchre is still to be seen in that place; he was grandfather to the present count. The people of Orkney returned in triumph to the city, under the command of James Sinclare, of whom we have already spoken. The plain where this battle was fought is called Symmerdan.

Orpher is another parish, affording a good harbour for fishermen.

Stromness has an excellent harbour, and an excellent outlet for a fleet. The French and Spaniards often escape tempests here, as no winds can injure vessels in this harbour. This port is called Cairstane, because it is fortified with stone. Healthy winds, called etesian, blow here. Here also is a most dangerous bridge to travellers, called the bridge of Vaith, where many are lost.

Sandwich abounds with rabbits; it is the largest of all the parishes, and entirely cultivated.

Bersa is called a barony; in it is a noble palace, where the king of the Orkneys formerly lived; but when Julius Cæsar governed the whole world, he was carried by force to Rome, and his kingdom was afterwards subject to the Romans, as the inscription on one stone proves. The king's name was Gavus.

Haray is another parish, where there are a set of most worthless drones, who are therefore called the sheep of Haray. Here is a great church, dedicated to the Virgin Mary, called by the common People the Lady of Grace;

concerning which many fables are told. Many flock hither from the other islands.

Evie, another parish where whales enter freely. It enjoys great abundance of corn.

Rendal. This parish was subject to the lord of Tulliallon, and he was lord of it, as his house still testifies.

The length of Pomonia, from the Bairns of Brugh to the Brugh of Birsay, contains sixteen miles. There are about five thousand men capable of bearing arms in Pomonia, and as many in the islands. It has abundance of barley and oats; the men are very much addicted to drink and luxury, and often quarrel with one another. For example, when one neighbour invites another, if the guest be not sick before he departs, he quarrels with his host, until he is sent home drunk. This is also the custom in the islands. They are very crafty and cunning, and use a dialect peculiar to themselves.

Copinshaw, 19.

Copinshaw is a small island, the first which is seen by those sailing to the Orkneys. One farmer resides on it. It has a lofty rock towards the east, on the sides of which wild fowl are taken, by letting down boys with ropes from the summit.

South Ronaldsay, 20.

South Ronaldsay, another island, where the men are very strong. It has a temple near the sea shore, in which is a very hard stone, commonly called a Grey Whin, six feet long and four broad, in which is the mark of two naked feet, that no workman could have carved. The old people say, that a Frenchman having been banished from his country, embarked on board a ship as an asylum; but a violent storm arising, the vessel was wrecked; he however, leaping on the back of a sea-monster, stood there humbly praying to God, and vowing that if he was carried safe to land he would build a church in memory of his preservation, dedicated to the Virgin Mary. His prayer was heard, and he came safe to shore. The monster by whose assistance he was preserved, was afterwards changed into a stone, and placed by the Frenchman in the church, where it still remains, as I have already said.

Lambholme, 21.

This is a very small, barren and uncultivated isle, in which great numbers of rabbits are killed by the men of the neighbouring islands.

Flotay, 22.

This island is level with the sea, and very beautiful. In it are the ruins of an old house, which some call a church, others a presbytery, of great length, where annual assemblies of the clergy were held. Three monuments are erected here, which we call crosses.

Cavay, 23.

Cavay, or the cheese island, noted for its excellent cheese. It is small, but very convenient for cattle and trees, on account of it being sheltered from the winds. There is on it one house with two cottages.

Faray, 24.

Faray, or the fair island. There are two of this name, the other is near Shetland. The island is barren and uncultivated, but celebrated for its fishery.

Sownay, 25.

Sownay affords a safe shelter for foreign ships and fishermen. Oats and barley grow here, though the soil is very sandy. Not far from Kirkness is Braga, well known to mariners.

Ryssay, 26.

A sandy, barren and uncultivated island. Here formerly was the best land in all the Orkneys.

Burray, 27.

Burray, or the Burge island, is small but abounding in barley.

Wais, 28.

The Pomonians call the inhabitants of this island the Lyars of Wais; the island is not large. There is no division between Hoy and Wais, it is one island at the ebbing of the tide.

Hoy, 29.

Here is a very lofty mountain, three miles in height, to the top of which there is no means of ascending, also another not so lofty. Between these is a stone worthy of notice; it is very large and high, and is said to have been shaped by a giant and his wife. One stone is a chamber, in which is a bed, very ingeniously made in the stone, by the man and woman; during the time of their sleeping here the woman was pregnant, as the stone testifies, for

that part of the bed where she lay, retains the shape of a pregnant woman. If it may be credited, birch grows in in this island, but not in the others; for they are all without trees. Here are white hares, which are hunted with dogs. In it is also abundance of birds called Leris, also of fish and other kinds of fowl.

It contains likewise mines of gold, lead and iron, and many other valuable things.

Gransay, 30.

A small island, but well-cultivated; very dangerous for ships.

Southay, 31.

Southay, or the southern island, is now uncultivated, but formerly abounded with cattle. All the natives ended their lives on the same day. This is no fable, but a real fact worthy of the notice of christians. On the festival of our Saviour, Jesus Christ, as they had no church of their own, they were obliged to go to a neighbouring island; and having embarked in a boat, both old and young, a sudden storm arose, and the vessel sunk through the violence of the waves. Upon which all the cattle in the island, oxen, sheep, calves, swine, dogs, whelps, and every other living creature, plunged themselves with the greatest fury into the sea, and were drowned, since which time no one has inhabited the island.

OF THE HUSBANDRY OF THE ORKNEYS,

Taken from another manuscript annexed to the preceding.

They till not till the spring of the year, and as they till so they sow their oats. Their plough is drawn by four beasts going side by side. The caller, or driver, goes before the beasts backwards with a whip. The holder of the plough lies on with his side on the plough; the coulter and the sock be not two pound in weight; the oxen be yoked with cheaits, and hains and breachems, which they call weassis, albeit they have horns. They sow in a creel made of straw, they call ane cassie, and of ane handful they make four casts.

Their horses live on bear-chaff, and grow exceeding fat on the same. They are very little, but quick and fiery. The men here keep the observations of the moon in so far, that they stall their marts at the waxing of the moon affirming they grow in the barrel.

Their calves never suck their mothers. Their corns are very good, to wit, bere and oats. They are handled only by the men; the women neither shake the straw, nor yet winnow the corn. They good their land with seaware, and lightly midden muck.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

IT is with great satisfaction that I observe the pages of your Magazine occasionally occupied with philosophical disquisitions, on subjects connected with the arts which adorn human life. You cannot have a nobler object than that of endeavouring to introduce improvements into the several branches of useful science; and attention to the subject will justly intitle you to the thanks of a judicious and discerning public.

I am sensible, that every thing connected with philosophy and the arts has been so fully investigated by professional men of the brightest talents, that it is no easy matter to discover any thing entitled to the character of a real improvement; and that few but those who devote their lives to the study of nature can hope to have the merit of raising science to a higher pitch of perfection. But unquestionably that man is fairly entitled to the character of a philosopher, who diligently follows the footsteps of those that have successfully applied themselves to the investigation of the phenomena of the natural and moral worlds, though he may not be able, by mounting to nobler heights in the arduous paths of science, to lay claim to the highest meed of literary renown. And therefore we should not abandon philosophical pursuits, because we despair of equalling those who have gone before us. We should endeavour to improve our own minds, by the labours of others. To obtain literary fame is the happy lot but of a few—to make some progress in the several branches of useful and commercial learning, is in the power of all.

But many seem to have no natural taste for philosophical subjects, and require to have the beauties of science pointed out, and recommended to their attention. Your correspondents therefore cannot be improperly or unprofitably employed, when they

endeavour to present to the view of our ingenious countrymen, sketches of the philosophy of nature in an agreeable and engaging form. Such pourtrayings of science, even though imperfectly executed, may tend to excite curiosity, to raise youthful genius to aspire after high distinction, and to promote a taste for those studies, which most contribute to the improvement of the human mind.—This position seems well illustrated by the effect which was produced on the public mind and taste by some of the writings of the Bishop of Llandaff. It is well known, that the elegant Chemical Essays of that learned and excellent philosopher, tended to inspire all ranks with a desire of making inquiries into a most delightful and useful branch of natural philosophy, and to promote a taste for chemical researches that was before unknown.

I observe in your Number for February, a paper on the subject of *specific gravity*, in which the author describes an instrument for ascertaining specific gravities which he invented, and gives a brief account of the general doctrine. As inquiries of this nature are interesting, and cannot be supposed familiar to many of your readers, I shall claim your indulgence while I make a few additional observations, with a view of making the subject as plain and intelligible as possible.

The solution of the problem respecting King Hiero's crown is the first discovery which was made respecting specific gravity. As it forms a very good explanatory introduction to the general doctrine, I shall make no apology for laying some account of it before the reader.

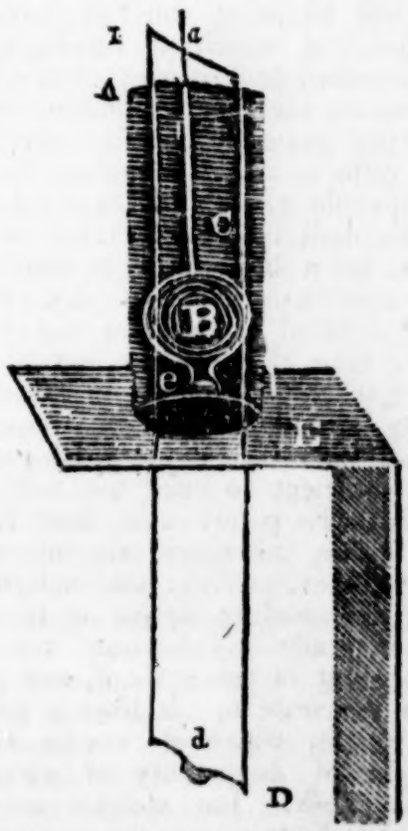
Hiero king of Syracuse had employed a goldsmith to make him a crown, and furnished him with a wedge of pure gold, of a certain weight, for that purpose. The crown was made, and the weight of it found correct. Yet, judging by the colour of the metal, Hiero suspected that the goldsmith had kept back part of the gold, and made up the weight by alloying the crown with some less valuable metal. But the king not knowing how to discover whether his suspicions were well founded or not, referred the matter to *Archimedes*, the most celebrated geometrician of the age. As the subject was altogether new to him, he was for some time unable to devise any method of detecting the imposition. What the philosopher was unable to accomplish by laborious study, was however discovered by means of an accidental observation.

It happened, one day, that as he was stepping into the bath, he observed that the water rose in the bath, in proportion as he descended, and was immersed to a greater depth. From this observation he took a hint, with which he was so much transported, that he jumped out of the bath, and ran about naked, crying out, in an extacy of joy, I have found it! I have found it! He concluded instantly, that on going into the bath, he had raised the water just as high as any thing else would have done, that was exactly of his bulk: and consequently considering, that any other body of equal weight but of less bulk than himself, could not have raised the water so high as he did, he immediately told the king he had discovered a method of solving the problem respecting the adulteration of the crown.—The mode which he adopted appears to have been as follows.—He procured a ball of pure gold and another of silver, exactly of equal weight with the crown, and argued thus—if the crown be altogether gold, it will be exactly of equal bulk with the ball of gold, and when immersed in water, will raise the water exactly to the same height as the ball when immersed: but if it were wholly of silver, the ball of silver when immersed would raise the water no higher than the crown immersed—and therefore if the crown consist of gold and silver mixed in a certain proportion, it will when immersed raise the water less high than the ball of silver of the same weight, and higher than the ball of gold: for gold being the heaviest of all known metals, contains greater weight under the same bulk than any other metal.—Accordingly he detected the adulteration, by finding that the crown raised the water higher, on immersion

than the ball of gold, though not so high as the ball of silver: and by making trials with different metals, he at length ascertained the quantity of alloy which the crown contained.

If, instead of marking the *heights* to which the masses of gold and silver raised the water on immersion, Archimedes had estimated their respective *weights* when immersed in water, he would have been able to have solved the problem with greater ease and exactness. For a solid immersed in a fluid loses a proportion of its weight equal to the weight of the quantity of fluid displaced. If a body be weighed in air, and then in water, the equilibrium of the balance is instantly destroyed on immersion· and the weight which restores the equilibrium is equal to the weight of a quantity of water of equal bulk with the immersed solid. Thus, if a guinea weigh, in air, 129 grains, and if, on immersion, it requires 7¼ grains added to it to restore the equilibrium, this shows, that a quantity of water equal to the bulk of a guinea weighs 7¼ grains. Now had Archimedes weighed in water the crown and gold ball, which he found of equal weight in air, he would have found that on immersion, the one was heavier than the other. The pure gold, not being equal in bulk to the mixture of which the crown was made, would have displaced a less quantity of water, and of course would have lost less of its weight than the crown; and it would thence have been apparent, that the crown had been alloyed with some metal of inferior value, and whose *specific gravity* was less than that of pure gold.

Specific gravities were formerly ascertained by an instrument called the *hydrostatic balance*, which differed from the common balance only in being of very nice construction, and having a hook at the bottom of each scale, on which small weights might be hung by horse-hairs, or silk threads. This instrument was improved, by appending to one end of the beam a glass ball for ascertaining the specific gravity of fluids, and a glass bucket for ascertaining that of solids. But latterly the form of the instrument has been entirely changed, by the attempts of various ingenious men, to reach perfection. Of the several instruments which have been contrived, that of Mr. Nicholson, as improved by Mr. Laurie of Glasgow, appears to be the best. It is termed *hydrometer*, and can very conveniently be employed both for fluids and solids. The instrument at first consisted simply of a glass ball, to which a small rod, having a little bucket or cup for containing weights was fixed at top, and likewise a small cup for the same use at bottom. One defect of this instrument was, that it was readily overset. To remedy this inconvenience, Mr. Laurie added two bars, which extend to a considerable length below the body of the instrument, and which by bearing weights, in a small cup, at the lowest part, throw the center of gravity so low, that the instrument always remains in its proper position. This will be better apprehended by a particular description.



A, E, is a glass vessel for containing water and other fluids; I, D, is a small metal frame, which encompasses

the glass vessel, A, E, and has the glass ball B, connected with it, by the small metal rod *a*, c; *d*, is a small cup at the lower part of the frame, for containing weights; e, is another small cup, which is fastened to the glass ball, and which is used for the same purpose. The instrument is so constructed, that 1000 grains put into the cup *d*, shall bring down the glass ball B, till the rod *a*, c, be half immersed in the standard fluid—viz. distilled water, at the temperature of 60° Fahrenheit. The rod *a*, c, is graduated by experiments made for the purpose, so as to correspond with weights put into the cup *d*.

Let it be supposed now, that I want to know the specific gravity of any fluid. I pour a sufficient quantity of it into the vessel A, E, and mark the point of the rod *a*, c, where the fluid strikes, on the glass ball being immersed in it. This determines immediately the ratio of specific gravity between it and the standard fluid. Or, put into the cup *d* weights sufficient to bring the rod *a*, c, to the point at which it stands, when the standard fluid is employed—This determines the point as before. Suppose 900 grains produce this effect;—The ratio is as 900 to 1000—That is the specific gravity of the fluid is 9 the standard fluid being taken as 1.

But let it be required to determine the specific gravity of any solid. Pour distilled water into the vessel A, E; take the weights out of the lower scale *d*, and put in the solid, whose specific gravity is required. Admit that the solid employed is not sufficient to bring the rod *a*, c, to the zero point, and that I find 100 grains additional are necessary to produce this effect: this determines that the absolute weight of the mass is 900 grains. Take now the substance out of the scale *d*, and put it into the scale e, it loses a part of its weight, which of course is the weight of a quantity of water of equal bulk. Put weights into the lower scale, to restore the equilibrium, then the proposition is—"As the loss sustained is to the absolute weight, so is the specific gravity of the fluid to that of the solid."—Thus, a guinea weighs in air 129 grains; it loses in water 7.25: therefore 7.25 : 129 :: 1.000 : 17.793, the specific gravity of gold. The meaning of which is, that a guinea is 17.793 times as heavy as its bulk of water.

By the hydrometer I can likewise ascertain the exact proportion of metals in any compound. Suppose I wish to determine how much alloy there is in a guinea, or what proportions of copper and pure gold there are in guinea-gold. By experiment, I find the specific gravity of guinea-gold to be 17.793, and I know, by the tables, that the specific gravity of fine gold is 19.637, and that of copper 8.843. I then subtract the specific gravity of copper from that of the compound, and the specific gravity of the compound from that of gold—The first remainder shows the bulk of gold, and the latter the bulk of copper, in the whole compound—These I multiply by the respective specific gravities, and the products show the proportion of weights of each metal in the compound.

from 17.793 specific gravity of compound,
take 8.843 specific gravity of copper,
8.950 bulk of gold in the compound.

and from 19.637 specific gravity of gold,
take 17.793 specific gravity of compound,
1.844 bulk of copper in the compound.

there 8.950 × 19.637 gives 175.75 proportion of gold,
and 1.844 × 8.843 gives 16.3 proportion of copper,
Or 22 to 2 nearly.

Thus I find that in guinea-gold, for every 22 parts of pure gold there are 2 parts of copper. This experiment may be extended to any compound metal; and thus it will be easy to determine, whether a suspected metal be genuine or counterfeit.

I shall conclude this paper by remarking, that though many persons may never have occasion to make experiments respecting specific gravities, yet it must be pleasant for all to know something of the subject. An acquaintance with the general doctrine will frequently be found serviceable in reading and in conversation. At all events, inquiries of this nature form a pleasing and useful exercise for the powers of the human mind.

A. Z.

For the Belfast Monthly Magazine.

WE have been favoured with the sight of a letter from an officer in Portugal to his relations in this country, and been permitted to make the following interesting extracts from it. We doubt not but it will prove acceptable to our readers, as it conveys the information in so neat and lively a manner.

Lumiera, March 2, 1809.

"I had a long spell of the complaints which are so prevalent in this country, and you will not wonder at my being in a particularly good humour, when you hear that I am at this moment sitting, enjoying as a convalescent, one of the loveliest days you can conceive; my room full of geraniums, in full blossom; woodbine, carnations, &c; as delightful a view as you could wish of the whole country, full of orange groves in blossom, olive plantations, vineyards, &c. Could I convey, *by a wish*, those I wish for, and place them beside me, I should have nothing left to desire, and I can assure you that my thoughts are oftener turned on the fire-side of home, than perhaps a soldier's ought. We remain here in as much tranquillity, and hear the different reports of the advance of the French with as much composure as if it were none of our business to oppose them; however, we have now some likelihood of advancing; our baggage is again curtailed; mules ordered to be provided immediately, and I hope that a very few days will see us in motion. Our route this time will be different, which I am glad of, as it will give us an opportunity of seeing more of the country. A march now will be delightful, the weather is as warm as in July, and the spring very far advanced. I fancy there is no doubt that the French are advancing three columns, making in all thirty or forty thousand men, a number we shall be more than a match for, as General Sherbrooke has brought a reinforcement, and we have now upwards of twenty thousand English in Portugal. The whole army, with the exception of a few regiments who garrison Lisbon, are in cantonments, ten or twelve miles distance from it. Did I tell you that I had been at that sweet place Cintra, where I passed two days with a very pleasant party, rambling about, and seeing all the Moorish and Roman antiquities, with some very ancient convents? One of the latter which is perched on the very top of the highest rock in Lisbon, has a very beautiful altar of alabaster, which contains (in what I believe you call *al-fresco*) the whole history of our Saviour's sufferings, and some of his principal actions. The priest who showed it to us, put a light behind it, and it was as transparent as glass. I also went to see the palace of Calouse, one of the Prince Regent's most favourite seats, and a most magnificent one it is. Will you believe me when I assure you, that for more than a mile and a half on the high road it is bordered with geraniums, roses and myrtles; and in the beginning of February when I went there, those flowers were in full bloom. Two officers joined us a few days since, from the 1st battalion, which is in Malta; they complain of Malta as very stupid quarters, on account of the season, which is Lent, and nothing going forward but prayers, a kind of pastime, which, as my correspondent expresses himself, the heroes in red have but little *esprit* for. With us, or at least while we were in Lisbon, it was much the same. Religious processions superseded operas, and most ridiculous things they are. Fancy some hundred of the fat race of people here, employed in carrying images of all the saints in the calendar, all of them, but the females especially, dressed out in the most tawdry style, as large as life; and faith no small burden to the carriers, who labour most piteously under the load. This show is attended by crowds of nobility and gentry of both sexes, all marching in procession through the principal streets, and what is really well worth seeing, is the number of very beautiful women, who show themselves at the windows, and in the balconies, elegantly dressed, and who kneel down as the host, or the images of their favourite saints pass. I have been but at few parties; first, from illness, and now I am ashamed to go, as an enormous Portugueze wig, *decorates* or rather *disfigures* my poor nob, which I was obliged to shave after my long confinement, as my hair was tumbling off. I often think what a prize my head, or at least the covering of it will be to some bald Frenchman, who may chance to knock it off.

"I hope to write a more interesting

letter from the frontiers. The good people here do not seem *quite* as secure of our triumph over the French, as we vain fellows do; at least, they are taking prudent precautions to ensure a retreat to the Brazils.

"I had contracted an intimacy with a very learned and gentleman-like French professor, at the Convent of St. Vincent's (one of the finest, by the bye, in Portugal) they have a very elegant library, immensely large, and full of the rarest and most valuable books, where I used to pass many a pleasant hour. What was my surprise on going there one day, after a fortnight's absence, while I was ill, to find every thing packed up, and ready to send aboard a ship, those prudent monks had hired to convey them at a moment's warning to the Brazils. It is the same in every private and public place. Every thing of value is removed, or ready to be so. I think that for this once if the French *do* beat us (which in my *humble* opinion is *impossible*) they will find little worth plundering in Portugal. The chapels are already pretty well stript, and all the principal merchants are prepared to set off at a moment's warning.

"You have no doubt heard, that General Beresford is made field marshal here to instruct and organize the Portugueze troops. I shall take the liberty of sending you what I hope you have not before read, and what is in my opinion a very beautiful extract on the death of Lord Nelson. I know my father and mother will read it with great pleasure, a thought that gives me no small degree of the same sensation."

"ON LORD NELSON'S DEATH.

"Still it is impossible to reflect upon the great victory which that gallant hero purchased for us with his life, without feeling a mixed emotion of joy and sorrow, of mourning and triumph. The *glory* and the *calamity*, like the angels of Mercy and Affliction travelled together.

"At what period was that victory achieved! how seasonable! how well timed! Whilst on the Continent, a wretched and incapable general,* had without a battle, surrendered himself alive into the hands of Buonaparte, *our English hero*, once more, and for the last time fought and conquered the united foes of his country. But, he fell in the meridian of his fame, and one moment made him immortal in *both* worlds.

"His career of services had been long, but it was in the middle of the last war that he burst upon the public eye as a luminary of the first magnitude.

"At the battle of Aboukir, he rose like the sun in the east, and like the sun too, after a summer's day of glory, he set in the west at the battle of Trafalgar, leaving the ocean in a blaze as he went down, and in darkness when he *had* descended.

"In ages to come, when the stranger who visits this island, shall inquire for the monument of *Nelson*, the answer will be—"*Behold his country which he saved.*"

* General Mack.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

PERMIT me to reply to "Farmer." (see your Magazine for March 1809, page 193, No. 8) That writer says, "the statement is fairly made on one acre in the drill, or rather bank-mode, and one acre in the lazy-bed way." Now I contend *this is not* the case; let the reader determine. The charges on one acre in the drill way, are stated at 3*l.* 8*s.* 11*d.* (including forty loads of dung, 2*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*) The charges on one acre in the lazy-bed mode, are stated at 23*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* (including *three hundred and twenty* loads of dung, 17*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*) Is there not in the latter case, charged for dung *eight times* the sum, and quantity charged for it in the former? To have made the comparison "fair," the dung for each process should have been alike in quality and expense, unless it be true, that in order to raise a lazy-bed crop of potatoes, exceeding a drilled one, *only two barrels*, eight times the dung and seed be required; also, that more than seven times the expense in labour is requisite, and that the benefit to the succeeding crops is *equal*. Whatever may be the opinion on the quantity and expense of dung, seed, and labour, requisite for each process; it will not be contended, I presume, that forty loads of dung will be as beneficial to the succeeding crops as three hundred and twenty loads; the *excess* ought to

go to the credit of that process, to which the greater quantity was applied. There is another circumstance which makes the statement in question not fairly comparable; viz. that as the ploughing and harrowing of the drill crop are not charged, because, "they would be given the land had it been a fallow;" for the same reason, the lazy-bed mode should have been charged only with whatever expense was bestowed on it in labour for the potatoes, more than would have been bestowed had it been a fallow. How the Farmer could make such a mistake as to imagine that the last statement was a fair one for *one acre*, I am at a loss to conjecture; perhaps it arose from his taking it for granted that it was so, because the author expressly *says* "he has given it for one acre only;" I also might have been deceived by this assertion, had I not observed in the *next lines*, the words, "here we have *eight acres* highly dressed for a subsequent crop." It is true, he *says*, "with the same quantity of dung as the one acre," it is, however, a fact, that he has *charged eight times* the quantity." Certainly, no person who is acquainted with the expense of planting potatoes with the spade, can think that eight acres could be done in that way for 2*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* I am in doubt whether *one* acre be done generally for that sum, indeed I am inclined to think the expenses on the *drill* method are also underrated. You have the "Farmer's," and my opinion on anonymous communications, and you will, I have no doubt, "know what value to set upon them," and while I acknowledge that, "the value of communications ought to be estimated by the importance of the subjects, and the soundness of the reasoning employed, and not by the name of the author," I hope I may be allowed to entertain the opinion that, *unimportant* subjects, and *unsound* reasoning are more likely to come from the anonymous writer, than from him who gives his name; for this plain reason, that the latter will be more wary, as *he may lose his reputation* as well as have his feelings wounded, while the former can sustain only *one* of those mortifications. On subjects of agriculture, the name and place of abode of a writer are particularly useful, the farmer who is about adopting any system recommended, wants to be satisfied in a thousand particulars, which the author may not have noticed; many of your readers who would ride miles for such information, would not put pen to paper to obtain it; more value would be set on five minutes' *conversation* with the person recommending any system, than on volumes of book-information; in saying this I take it for granted "book-farming" is esteemed in this country, as little as it is in England. Although "The Farmer's Magazine, principally composed of anonymous pieces, is held in great estimation, and has materially served the cause of agriculture," it does not follow that it would not have been in *higher* estimation, and have still more served the cause of agriculture, had it not contained so many anonymous communications. Lest the "Farmer" should fancy I am a favourer of the lazy-bed mode, in preference to the drill one, I assure him I am not; it will not be easy to bring an Englishman to prefer the former, at least if profit be his object; but I find the prevailing opinion is, that if the *palate* only be consulted; the lazy-bed mode should be practised. I am Sir, your obedient servant, WM. GOOCH.

Castle-Upton, April 1809.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF DISTINGUISHED PERSONS.

To the Editor of the Belfast Magazine.

SIR,

AS the life of BOYSE, the poet, may not happen to be universally known, and as the detail of the errors of his life, and the consequences attendant on them, may probably be an useful caution somewhere, I hope you will allow them a place in your valuable Miscellany. I am, Sir,

Your constant reader, W.

Newry, Dec. 10, 1808.

SAMUEL BOYSE, was the son of Joseph Boyse, a respectable dissenting

clergyman, who resided in Dublin at the commencement of the last century, and was during that period much celebrated for the controversy he carried on with King, the then Archbishop of Dublin, on episcopal authority. The son, Samuel, the subject of this memoir, was born in the metropolis, in the year 1708, where, under the protection of his father, he received the rudiments of his education, and at the age of eighteen was sent to Scotland, to qualify him, as it is to be presumed, for the same profession adopted by his father. Unhappily for young Boyse, he had not been a year in Scotland, when he was inveigled into a matrimonial connection with the daughter of an humble tradesman in the city of Glasgow, by which, in the first instance, he was completely disqualified from pursuing his necessary studies in any of the universities. To add to the difficulties of his situation, by the profligacy and extravagance of his wife, and her sister, who lived with them, he soon became so involved in his circumstances, as to be obliged to quit Scotland abruptly, and again to seek the asylum afforded to him by his father, whither he was accompanied by his wife and his sister-in-law. It is natural to suppose, that between a man, such as the elder Boyse is represented to have been, and such persons as those who accompanied his son from Scotland, there could exist but little harmony; but such was the simplicity of the one, and the refined duplicity of the other, that no circumstances, however glaring, were sufficient, to open the eyes of old Boyse. His affection to his son and his daughter-in law continued undiminished till his death, though he had disposed of a paternal property in Yorkshire, to support their extravagance, and was in his last illness indebted to the good-nature of his congregation for the common necessaries of life, and at his death was buried at their expense.

After this period, few traces of Samuel's life worth noticing are to be met with, till the year 1731, when he emerged from his obscurity, and attracted the notice of many of the literary characters in Scotland (to which place he had returned) by the publication of a small volume of poems, and which he dedicated to the Countess of Eglenton, a woman of refined taste, a general patroness of literature, and a steady and cordial friend to Boyse, during his residence in Scotland. Could the favourable reception of these effusions of his genius have operated in correcting the errors of his system of life, he might have bid fair to have reckoned the more valuable members of society amongst his friends, as we find that even with all his profligacy he contrived to secure the patronage of some of the first characters in the kingdom. On the death of Lady Stormont he drew the attention of Lord Stormont by the publication of an elegant copy of verses in praise of the deceased, entitled *The Tears of the Muses.* Unlike many elegies of the same stamp, it possessed one qualification seldom found—*truth.* As Lady Stormont was a female of unusual endowments, and a generous patroness of poetical merit, Boyse was liberally rewarded for this well-merited tribute of praise; and was likewise by this means recommended to the notice of the Dutchess of Gordon. This lady was so deeply interested in favour of Boyse, that she undertook to procure him a civil employment, and for this purpose furnished him with a recommendatory letter to one of the Commissioners of Customs, as a person qualified to fill a situation at that time vacant. Of this letter, however, he made no advantage, as, from a thoughtlessness which attended all his actions, he neglected to present it till the application was too late to enable the Commissioner to grant the request which it contained. A repetition of such conduct, together with his general irregularity of life, soon brought him into universal contempt, and wearied the friendship even of those who were the warmest admirers of his poetical talent. At length finding it impossible to remain any longer in Edinburgh, he took the resolution of trying his fortune in London. On this occasion, the Dutchess of Gordon, and Lord Stormont, once more interested themselves in his favour, and furnished him with introductory letters to Mr. Pope, and some persons of the first respectability in England: with these recommendations he privately decamp-

ed from Edinburgh, to avoid the importunity of his creditors. On his arrival in London, he went to Twickenham to deliver the letters of introduction to Pope; but as he happened not to be at home at the time, Boyse abandoned the idea of making a second application; and in this manner he relinquished the advantages he might otherwise have reaped from the kindness of his friends in Edinburgh. Thus shut out from respectable society, he sunk into that mode of life to which he had a natural propensity. He frequented the society of none but the lowest dregs of the people, and never showed any inclination to renew his acquaintance with those who could be of service to him, unless when stimulated to it by severity of distress; his applications, however, were always made by letters, penned in the most abject terms; and what he acquired by his mendicant epistles, was spent in the next tavern, where he generally ordered the most delicious viands and the most expensive wines, which he enjoyed by himself, at the moment that his wife and unfortunate offspring were perishing of want!

A life like Boyse's, supported by eleemosinary means, and these too irregularly supplied, could scarcely be supposed to have promised a length of years; in fact, at his thirty-second year, he was reduced to the lowest ebb of distress, without health, confined to his bed, with scarcely any covering, and depending for subsistence on the usual means he had recourse to in his difficulties, writing letters to his friends in the usual stile of abject supplication. During this interval of miserable existence, which continued for six weeks, he occasionally found employment in the Magazines, and during these moments of occupation his whole figure and situation was truly ridiculous, could we forget the miseries attending it, for whenever he prepared himself for his task, he sat upright in his bed, wrapt himself up in his blanket (the only covering or clothing he was at that time master of) and thrusting his arm through a hole made for the purpose, and placing the paper on his knee, he scribbled whatever his fancy dictated. At length he was relieved from this state of distress, by the compassionate interference of a gentleman, who took his clothes out of the pawn-broker's, and enabled him to appear once more in public. In the year 1745, his wife died, while he was at Reading, compiling a review of the principal transactions of that period, including an account of the rebellion. This event seemed to have had a salutary effect upon his habits of life, as he became more systematic in his conduct, and seemed determined to abjure all his profligate habits; he even appears to have chosen a rank in life for himself, to which he intended to limit all his desires, as he now chose a wife from the lowest ranks of society, but one, who from her quiet demeanor, and regular habits, was likely to be a companion the best suited to his circumstances and situation. His habits became more regular, the employment of his time was arranged henceforward in a more systematic and useful manner, in writing for support, and endeavouring by exercise to restore a constitution shattered by disease and early dissipation. He had indeed proceeded so steadily in this plan of reformation, that those few friends whom compassion had still retained in his service, began to entertain the most sanguine hopes, that the brilliancy of his genius had still a chance of entertaining by its wit, and improving by its information; but all their hopes were soon blasted; his constitution had suffered too much from the irregularities of twenty years, to give any well-grounded prospect of existence lasting much longer, and after lingering for a few months, he expired in his 39th year, in the May of 1747, in a wretched garret near Shoe-lane, and before a collection could be made to defray the expense of giving his body a decent interment, it was hurried away by the parish officers, and buried without ceremony.

Boyse's appearance and manners were by no means prepossessing; to a clownishness of aspect and countenance, he added an inelegance of address, that made him shun those ranks in society, to which, from the pre-eminence of his genius, he had otherwise a right to aspire. To this perhaps might be attributed his prejudice in favour of low society, rather than to any natural inclination. He felt, and feelingly too, the consequence attached to a pleas-

ing address and appearance, and never cared to exhibit himself to those whose favour he wished to conciliate, except through a medium that could not excite their prejudices. Hence it was that his applications to the great were uniformly made by letter; and as he was naturally social (except in the moment of gratifying his gluttony) he fell into that society where he was liable to feel no restraint,

His publications are numerous, and are written with so much taste, and so much in the true spirit of poetry, that it may well be a matter of surprize they have not long since been published. His more considerable productions, and the times of their publication are as follow:

A Poem on Liberty, which was printed in the Dublin Journal, in	1726
The Tabula Cebetis	ditto.
The Tears of the Muses	Edin. 1732
Albion's Triumph	Lond. 1743
Translation of Fenelon's Existence of a God.	Lond. 1745
Attributes of the Deity, a Poem, particularly noticed in Harvey's Meditations,	1765
Recantation	1746

And many others on subjects of minor importance, the majority of which are interspersed in the Gentleman's Magazine, marked *Y*, and *Alcæus*.

LIFE OF THE EARL OF MACARTNEY.

GEORGE MACARTNEY, the descendant of a respectable family, which had settled in the county of Antrim in the year 1649, was born at the family mansion, at Lissanoure, in the year 1737. The early part of most lives are too uniform to afford much entertainment or instruction, and may in general be best passed over, unless we can discover the circumstances, often unimportant in themselves, that determine the bent by which the character of the man was afterwards swayed. At an early period of his life young Macartney was put under the care of a clergyman named Dennis, whose library consisted mostly of books of theology, together with a few on heraldry and genealogy. These last attracted the boy's attention, and the early exercise of his memory excited by them, strengthened it to a degree for which he was ever after remarkable. After passing through the usual course of academical studies, he finished his education according to the custom usual at that time, by a Continental tour. But when he thus conformed with the fashion of the day, he did not consider the tour in the same light as is too general, as the termination of a course of studies, and intended principally to wear off the habits acquired at colleges, but rather as the commencement of another course which was to prepare him for the part he afterwards designed to support in public. He visited most of the European courts, and acquired on the spot, an extensive and correct knowledge of their strength, resources, revenue and other points necessary for a politician to be acquainted with. Among other valuable acquaintances he then acquired, may be ranked the celebrated Voltaire, who not only expressed a strong degree of partiality towards him, but is said to have maintained a correspondence with him on his return to England.

He was soon afterwards returned to parliament for the borough of Midhurst, under the auspices of the Holland family. But he was soon called away from his parliamentary duty to one of a more important nature. After the revolution which placed Catherine II. on the throne of Russia, England was very desirous of forming an alliance with that power, principally from commercial views. The former commercial treaty had expired in the year 1734, during the reign of the Empress Elizabeth, who, though she declined renewing it, acquiesced in the continuation of its articles. But Catherine immediately after her accession, gave a positive denial, when pressed on the subject by Lord Buckingham, on the grounds that it was not intended to enter into an exclusive alliance with any power.

Under these circumstances was Sir George Macartney (for he received the honour of Knighthood on his appointment) selected to effect a treaty which had baffled the diplomatic skill of several former statesmen.—The preference was given him, not only on account of his knowledge of European politics, but through a hope that in a female court his external attractions and suavity of man-

ners might weigh more than great, but rigid and unbending talents.

Immediately on his arrival at Petersburgh he was admitted to a public audience. On this occasion he concluded a speech of some length with these expressions, "forgive me madam, if I here express my own particular satisfaction in having been chosen for an employment as pleasing as it is important. By this means I shall have the happiness of contemplating more nearly those extraordinary accomplishments, those heroic virtues, which make you the delight of that half of the globe over which you reign, and the admiration of the other." This compliment was not without its effect; it drew from the Czarina an extempore reply, couched in such expressions as did not fail to attract the notice, and raise the envy of several of the surrounding envoys.

His first step was to gain the friendship of Count Panin, sole minister of Catherine. In this he was completely successful. During the whole course of his mission he was distinguished by unequivocal marks of that nobleman's esteem. The Count frequently expressed his surprize at the extensive knowledge of so young a man, and even went so far as to acknowledge the advantage he had derived from his information concerning the other courts of Europe, and the commercial relations of Russia and Great Britain. Having gained this great point, without which he could have little hopes of success, for Panin was not only the principal, but the confidential minister of his mistress, he proceeded to develope the object of his mission. In the course of it unexpected difficulties presented themselves. The object of the Russian court then was to form a confederacy of the northern powers, of which Russia was to be the centre, for which purpose it would be necessary to secure a majority in the Swedish Diet, that could only be procured by a large subsidy. The Empress also was determined to enter into no treaty, of which a war with Turkey did not form a part. In that already concluded with Denmark, the latter power agreed to pay a subsidy of 500,000 roubles a year to Russia, and it was intimated that if England wished to obtain the commercial advantages now looked for, she must also concur in these two points by contributing largely to secure the good-will of the Swedes, and by paying a subsidy in case of a war between Turkey and Russia. These articles which did not depend on the ambassador himself, retarded the progress of the business very much; the difficulty was increased by a jealousy which had arisen in the mind of Catherine against the English Court, for an apparent neglect of proposals made to it, in the course of the former endeavour to conclude a similar treaty. They were at length overcome. At the end of four months, by assiduity and perseverance, the treaty of commerce was brought to a conclusion on terms which the English ministry had not ventured to hope for, and such as the merchants concerned in the trade were perfectly satisfied with.

So sensible was he of the advantageous terms he had procured, and fearful of any change in the sentiments of the Russian court, that he determined to take upon himself the whole responsibility, and signed the treaty previous to its being sent to England for the royal approbation. When first received in that country, it was viewed with much satisfaction; but shortly after he was informed that a material objection arose from a passage in one of the clauses which seemed to infringe upon the navigation act in Britain. Sir George's diplomatic abilities were now put to a new trial. Neither court would yield. Three times was the treaty new-modelled and sent to England, and as often was it returned.

The Empress at length was so disgusted at what she conceived to be either an unworthy trifling on the part of England, or a desire to interfere in the internal arrangements of her empire with respect to navigation, that she determined to break off all further communication, and gave directions for a *ukase* to be prepared, revoking the declaration of Elizabeth in favour of the British merchants. With great difficulty did the English ambassador prevail on her minister to delay this

step, and at length succeeded in new-modelling the exceptionable clause, so as to leave out the words which gave such offence to the English ministry, without altering its import as it related to Russia*.

Conscious of the importance of the point thus gained, and of the danger of some new change in the present irritated state of the feelings of Russia, he again risqued his personal safety for the public service, and signed the treaty a second time.

Shortly after the final ratification of this treaty he was recalled, and Mr. Stanley appointed to succeed him; this appointment, however, did not continue, for Mr. Stanley soon gave in his resignation, and the English ministry, who at length seemed to be sensible of the advantageous terms procured for the commerce of their country, by Sir George's exertions, nominated him a second time to the same embassy. This, however, he declined, and returned to England to enjoy the pleasures of temporary retirement, after a laborious and painful exertion for the public good. During his residence at Petersburgh, he had opportunities of performing many signal services to Stanislaus, King of Poland, by discovering, and in some measure counteracting the unjust artifices of the King of Prussia towards that country. As an acknowledgment of these services, he received from that monarch the ensigns of the order of the White Eagle.

In the year 1768, Sir George Macartney was married to the second daughter of the Earl of Bute. He did not however continue long unemployed in the public service. It was a maxim with him never to decline a duty imposed upon him by his country, which his health or abilities enabled him to fulfil. An opportunity soon occurred, in which his assistance was thought useful, and he again resumed a public character. It had hitherto been the custom in Ireland for the lord lieutenant to visit his government but once in two years, and after residing there a few months, to return to England, leaving the management of public affairs in the hands of the primate, lord chancellor, and speaker of the house of commons: these three persons were stiled lords justices, but were better known in Ireland by the name of undertakers. The influence derived from their situation gave them an unlimited controul over the interior government of Ireland, and enabled them to dictate their own terms to the English government. To destroy their exorbitant power it was resolved, at the change of ministry in 1766, that the lord lieutenant should reside constantly in Ireland.

In the year 1768 Lord Townsend was appointed to this office, and in the beginning of the next year Sir George Macartney was named his chief secretary.

The change of system now adopted excited strong impressions on the different parties in Ireland. The animosity of its former rulers, excited by the diminution of their power and patronage, was shown by the opposition to the money-bills, which through the influence of the Duke of Leinster, Lord Shannon, then master of the ordnance, and Mr. Ponsonby, the speaker, were rejected. Lord Townsend determined to crush this party by vigorous measures, and immediately prorogued the Parliament, and dismissed Lord Shannon and Mr. Ponsonby from their employments. These gentlemen, together with the Duke of Leinster, immediately went over to

* The clause originally ran thus:—"Mais alors on se reserve de la part de la Russie, *en reciprocité de l'acte de navigation de la Grand Bretagne*, la liberté de faire dans l'interieur, tel arrangement particulier qu'il sera trouvé bon pour encourager, et etendre la navigation Russienne."—"Reserving, however, on the part of Russia, *in return for the Navigation Act of Great Britain*, the liberty of making such particular internal arrangements as may be found useful for encouraging and extending the Russian navigation."

It was afterwards thus altered: "Mais alors chaque haute partie contractante se reserve pour elle la liberté de faire dans l'interieur de ses etats tel arrangement particulier qu'elle trouvera bon pour encourager et etendre sa propre navigation."—"But each of the high contracting parties reserves to itself the liberty of making such private arrangements in the interior of its states, as may be thought useful to encourage and extend its own navigation."

that party which distinguished themselves by an unvaried opposition to the measures of Government, and were then styled the Patriots. To crush this party required no small degree of resolution and perseverance. The opposition was pertinacious and incessant; every measure proposed by government was certain of being objected to; and resolutions were brought forward more with a view to embarrass the ministry than for the public advantage. In the prosecution of his purpose the lord lieutenant found himself ably seconded by his secretary. Sir George was an active, steady, and successful advocate of the cause of the ministry in the house of commons. By degrees the undertakers lost their influence, and in the same proportion that of the ministry encreased. For three years Sir George remained employed with unremitting attention in the duties of his office; residing mostly in Dublin, and spending in his own country the salary annexed to his office, and his own paternal income. During this time he secured no lucrative situations for himself or his friends, having, on the contrary, waved his claim to a place of £2000 per annum, to accommodate the government. He did not, however, remain unrewarded. On his return to England he was made a knight of the Bath, and some time afterwards received the appointment of governor and constable of the castle of Toome, in Ireland, with a salary of £1,300.

Soon after his resignation of the secretaryship of Ireland, he received another public appointment, which if less difficult, was in the end attended with greater danger. At the close of the year 1775, he was nominated governor of the islands of Grenada, the Grenadines and Tobago, and the next year he was raised to the peerage of Ireland, by the title of Lord Macartney, baron of Lissanoure. On his arrival at the seat of his government he found the island distracted by the feuds of two contending factions, the French and the Scotch party, each inveterate against the other. The former consisted of the original inhabitants, the latter of new settlers; their animosities were heightened by religious differences. The French party looked upon the Scotch not only as intruders but as heretics; the Scotch hated the French because they were Papists. To such a height of mutual irritation had they proceeded, that a plan was formed for the demolition of all the French churches in the island, and it required all the exertions of Lord Macartney to prevent the occurrence of an act so disgraceful. He had at length the satisfaction to find that the measures he adopted for tranquillizing the island were successful. His measures gave general satisfaction, the colony flourished, and the prosperity of individuals kept pace with the public welfare.

To the office of governor was united that of chancellor or supreme judge. In performing the duties of this department his patient attention in investigating the causes brought before him, and the equity of his decisions were applauded by all. He also succeeded in establishing a respectable militia; arms were entrusted indiscriminately into the hands of those who had so lately been on the point of mutual destruction, and the state of order and discipline to which he brought this newly formed military body assisted very much in the defence maintained against a very superior French force in the year 1779.

Of this intended attack Lord Macartney had received accurate information some time before. He also knew the importance which the French attached to these islands, and foresaw the benefits about to result to the English, if they were able to maintain the possession; he therefore neglected no precaution to ensure their safety; he raised batteries at the landing places; he was indefatigable in disciplining his little force, which consisted of less than five hundred men, not a fifth part of which were regulars; and sent early notice of the enemy's intention to the commanders of the English squadrons in these parts, endeavouring to impress on them the value of these islands to Great Britain, and the necessity of reinforcements. Having at length received inteligence that the French fleet was preparing to sail for Grenada, he sent again for assistance to General Grant, commanding at St. Lucia, and to Admiral Byron, who commanded the fleet. By the former he was told that he could

not divide his force, or send him a single man; the latter said that he knew St. Vincent's to be the enemy's dest nation; but that if Grenada should be actually attacked, he would certainly come to his assistance. Thus left to his own resources Lord Macartney did not despond; determined to delay, if not to disappoint the enemy's designs, he resolved, though he could not hope for success, not to yield without honour.

In the beginning of July, Count D'Estaing appeared before the island, with twenty five ships of the line and twelve frigates, having on board nearly seven thousand land troops, and immediately affected a landing. As soon as his whole force was disembarked, the French commander sent a summons to Lord Macartney, who had retired with his small force to a commanding height over the town, for an unconditional surrender, accompanied with menaces in case of refusal, to which the following laconic but spirited reply was given. "Lord Macartney is ignorant of the Count D'Estaing's force; he knows his own, and will defend the island to the utmost of his power." So small, however, was his power of defence, so totally unprovided of means from within, or hopes from without, that all he could expect was a capitulation on honourable terms. As the enemy advanced he was forced to retire step by step, and at last to throw himself as a last resource, into a small fort. Here the garrison finding resistance hopeless, sent a flag with articles of surrender; these were rejected and others transmitted in their stead, so degrading and uncertain, that not only the governor but all the principal inhabitants who were consulted on the occasion, resolved to surrender at discretion rather than accept of them. In consequence of this resolution, and to avoid the horrors and slaughter of an assault, he was compelled to the hard condition of delivering the island to the enemy unconditionally; but when he found that his being made a prisoner of war was inevitable, he tore the star of the Order of the Bath from his breast, observing "that though he could not prevent his person from falling into the hands of the enemy, he would take care that the ensigns of his Sovereign's favour should not grace a Frenchman's victory." The place was given up to the soldiers. All the clothes, plate, furniture and papers, both public and private, belonging to Lord Macartney, were taken from him, and no part of them ever returned. The plate was sold by public auction, in the market-place of Grenada, for the benefit of the French soldiers. Lord Macartney himself was refused permission to return to England on his parole, and sent a close prisoner to France. The bad treatment he received from the French commander, had no effect on his temper. When Count D'Estaing, the day after the capitulation, sent him an invitation to dinner, instead of betraying any resentment or ill-humour, he returned answer, "that he willingly accepted his invitation, but hoped he would over look the style of his dress, as the French soldiers had made a little free with his ward-robe." They had not left him a second shirt.

The injury suffered in his private fortune, for which it is to be remarked he never obtained any compensation, was much augmented by the irreparable loss of his papers.—From his first entrance into life, he had been in the habit of committing to paper every thing that occurred worthy of observation: the active life in which he had been engaged rendered these documents highly valuable. All these were lost; and to augment the misfortune, duplicates of those of most importance, which he had the precaution to send to England in the supply store-ship, also perished by that ship taking fire on its passage. His losses at this time, obliged him to dispose of the governorship of Toome for the payment of his creditors.

These losses were in some measure compensated by the expression of public feeling as to his defence of Grenada. By an act of Parliament, an extraordinary indulgence was granted to the island of Grenada, of allowing an importation of its produce to Great Britain, notwithstanding its being in the possession of an hostile power; and the ground of this act, as declared in both houses of parliament, was the gallant resistance made

by Lord Macartney at the head of his little force, mostly formed of the inhabitants of the island.

His Lordship remained a short time prisoner of war at Limoges. He was at length permitted to return to England, and immediately exchanged.—Soon after the affairs of Ireland under the administration of Lord Buckinghamshire, were likely to occasion much embarrassment, Lord Macartney was prevailed upon to undertake a secret confidential mission to that country which he accomplished equally to the satisfaction of all parties. The advice and assistance he had in his power then to give the lord lieutenant, on several very important and delicate questions, were of infinite service, and were gratefully received and acknowledged by that nobleman. On his return to England he again accepted a seat in the British Parliament, and was returned for the borough of Beralstone, in Devonshire, in 1780. *To be Continued.*

USEFUL INVENTIONS.

Description of a Potatoe Frame, for riddling Potatoes, on bringing them into the house after digging. From the Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland, Vol. III.

A POTATOE frame, something on the construction of a harp, for sand, having half-inch thick splices of wood, at inch and quarter clear distance betwixt them, clears the potatoes of earth and small ones, when going to be housed. It is placed sloping under the end of the cart, and the potatoes are drawn gradually into the sloping frame; the large ones run along into the house, and the small ones and earth fall through the splices. The proper dimensions of the frame corresponding to the wideness of the cart, are from five to six feet long, and two and a half wide. The small potatoes and earth are cleared to a side, now and then, and the earth riddled out of them, when they are put up for swine. The large potatoes are then much cleaner and the better of this operation.

To make Shoes water proof.

Melt 4 parts of rosin, with 6 parts of bees wax, 8 parts of mutton suet, and 16 parts of linseed oil.

This mixture warmed and frequently applied to the upper leather and soles of the shoes, will keep the feet dry in all the dirt of a wet season.

DETACHED ANECDOTES.

DR. PALEY.

"IN the year 1795, during one of his visits to Cambridge, Dr. Paley, in the course of a conversation on the subject, gave the following account of the early part of his own academical life; and it is here given on the authority, and in the very words of a gentleman who was present at the time, as a striking instance of the peculiar frankness with which he was in the habit of relating the adventures of his youth."

"I spent the first two years of my undergraduateship happily but unprofitably. I was constantly in society, where we were not immoral, but idle and rather expensive. At the commencement of my third year, however, after having left the usual party at rather a late hour in the evening, I was awakened at five in the morning by one of my companions, who stood at my bed-side and said; "Paley I have been thinking what a d****d fool you are. I could do nothing, probably, were I to try, and can afford the life I lead: you could do every thing and cannot afford it. I have had no sleep during the whole night on account of these reflections, and am now come solemnly to inform you, that if you persist in your indolence, I must renounce your society."

"I was so struck"—Dr. Paley con-

tinued, "with the visit and visitor, that I lay in bed great part of the day and formed my plan. I ordered my bed-maker to prepare my fire every evening, in order that it might be lighted by myself. I rose at five, read during the whole of the day, except such hours as chapel and hall required, allotting to each portion of time its peculiar branch of study; and just before closing the gates (nine o' clock) I went to a neighbouring coffee-house, where I constantly regaled upon a mutton chop and a dose of milk punch. And thus on taking my bachelor's degree, I became senior wrangler."

Thus fortunately was Dr. Paley roused to a full exertion of his faculties, before his habits were completely formed; and to this singular adventure may, perhaps, be attributed, not only his successful labours, as a college tutor, but the invaluable productions of his pen.

NEW MODE OF KILLING.

The following extract of a list of killed and wounded in the battle before Corunna, appeared in a London print. Captain Burrard, killed, Guards; Lieut. Col. Wynch, severely. Had it been a skirmish at an Irish fair or a battle between the rival parties of Shanavests and Caravats, we would have been able to understand what is meant by *severely killed*; but as it appears in a publication of the refined metropolis of Great Britain, we must wait until some of the writers on surgery, gives a definition of this new species of the extinction of animal life.

NEGRO CLEANLINESS.

A mark of cleanliness not much to be expected among a class of men so degraded, is strongly expressed among the Negroes in the West Indies, that of paying great attention to their teeth. The chew-stick which is here employed for cleaning the teeth is far more in use among the negroes, than the tooth-brush among the lower classes of people in England. A Negro has been observed amidst his many gambols in the water, to dive frequently to the bottom of the sea, and bring up a handful of sand. With this rough dentifrice, he soundly scrubbed his teeth, and by way of essence to wash it off, plunged down for another handful with his mouth wide open; and thus alternately repeated the rubbing and sea-water washing, until he found that his pearls were duly contrasted with his ebon countenance.

GIOTTE, THE PAINTER.

Pope Innocent the VIII. having desired to see a specimen of the talents of Giotte, one of the first of the modern Italian painters, this artist in imitation of the celebrated Apelles, sent him an outline in form of a circle, drawn with such freedom as to show the hand of a master and at the same time with such truth, as to give rise to a proverb, *tu sei pice ton do qui l'o di Giotte.*

INVENTION OF ENGRAVING.

The origin of the art of engraving is attributed to Tomaso Finiguerra, a Florentine goldsmith, who being accustomed to engrave on different metals, for the purpose of inlaying them, occasionally tried the effects of his work, by taking off impressions, first on sulphur, and afterwards on paper, by means of a roller, in such a manner that the figures seemed to have been traced with a pen. He however never applied this invention to any other purpose than that of ascertaining the progress of his work; but Baccio Baldini another goldsmith, conceiving that this discovery might be applied to more important purposes, began to engrave on metals, solely with a view of transferring the impressions to paper.

PARIAH ARRACK LIQUOR.

From the juice which exudes from the cocoa-nut trees is produced a liquor which by boiling forms a coarse kind of sugar, by distillation it yields a strong ardent spirit, which being every where sold at a low price constitutes one of the most destructive annoyances to the British soldiers. The name given to this pernicious drink by Europeans, is Pariah Arrack, from the supposition that it is only drank by the Pariahs or outcasts, that have no rank; no Hindoo of any of the four casts, is allowed by his religion to taste any intoxicating liquor; and in general this restriction is only violated by strangers, dancers, players and outcasts.

ABERDALGIE REFORMERS.

At Aberdalgie, a small parish in Scotland, some loyal and constitutional resolutions were proposed to be signed by the inhabitants, during a season of general and well-founded alarm, produced by seditious movements. They firmly refused their subscriptions and assent, although these resolutions were strongly recommended from the pulpit, and by a noble Lord of considerable property and influence. The general answer given by the parishioners, was as follows:

"We sincerely wish well to the King and Constitution, but while there exists such urgent necessity for reform, which may easily be put in practice without danger to either, we cannot think of signing any paper in which redress of grievances, and diminution of public expense, sinecures, and pensions, are not the prevailing sentiments; nor will we on any account tye up our hands from endeavouring to procure by all lawful and tranquil methods, such desirable purposes."

With this declaration they left the church totally to the thunderstruck clergyman and the peer.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

EPISTLE

TO A YOUNG MAN GOING TO COLLEGE, TO STUDY PHYSIC.

BY this, I hope, my youthful friend,
Thou hast attained thy journey's end,
And met a welcome kind,
Thou wilt not this address refuse,
From a mean votary of the Muse,
To serve thee well inclined.

Perhaps you will offended be,
And think and say I am too free,
If I should dare advise;
But I will not believe it so,
My friendship true I trust you know,
Your happiness I prize.

My friend, unto the world you're new,
You must expect to find but few
On whom you can depend;
Fraud and deceit do much abound,
The spiteful foe is often found,
And the deceitful friend.

An open foe you need not fear,
But those who friendship's semblance wear
Are to be dreaded most;
Superior kindness their pretence
They'll steal into your confidence,
Then of their triumph boast.

Let prudent caution be your guide,
Nor trust until you well have tried,
Lest you should be deceived;
But when you find a friend sincere,
Preserve him with the utmost care,
A gift from Heaven received.

I would not have you to suppose,
From this I'd wish your heart to close,
Or torturing doubts instill;
Let reason guide the genuine flow,
And let not dark suspicion grow,
Thy generous trust to chill.

From lawless love guard well your heart,
Be not the dupe of female art,
Nor this advice disdain;
Unlawful pleasures always cloy,
For one short hour of fleeting joy,
You'll prove an age of pain.

Those talents which to you are given,
Consider as the gift of Heaven,
And in Heaven's cause employ;
Religion's champion always be,
And let no vain philosophy,
Your Heavenly hopes destroy.

Superior genius you possess,
This sure will make your labour less,
To learn the healing art;
Do not the humbler path despise,
Nor let your flights of fancy rise,
Your studies to divert.

When the profession you've attained,
You will have time to let unreined,
The Muse extend her flight;
Drawn from the source of ancient lore,
Your mind will have imbibed a store,
Of intellectual light.

In the profession which you've chose,
Have many shining lights arose,
In science's bright sky;
Goldsmith and Garth, and Akenside,
Smollet, and many more beside,
By fame exalted high.

When on the world you look around,
You'll wonder at the strange compound,
Of folly, sin and art;
Attracted some by glory's blaze
While others, sordid interest sways,
And closes up the heart.

Some eager run ambition's race,
With terror we their footsteps trace,

With blood and rapine marked;
While some immersed in slothful ease,
Study each appetite to please,
In Pleasure's cause embarked.

Others well skilled in fraud and guile,
Do study every artful wile,
On mankind to impose;
The mask of honesty they wear,
No friendly hand to lay them bare,
Or the bad heart expose.

Some madly run the wild career,
And strangers to each cautious fear,
Are first in Folly's race;
Each fleeting fashion they pursue,
How strange soever if 'tis new,
They're eager in the chace.

Horse, or dog, or dice attracts,
The silly mortal ne'er reflects,
Till ruin him assails;
Then he has leisure for sad thought,
And then experience dearly bought
Severe distress entails.

While others—but, alas! how few,
To true Religion's dictates true,
Pursue a virtuous way;
Steady in view they keep the end,
They for a glorious prize contend,
A crown will ne'er decay.

Still, my young friend, be this your aim,
Superior e'en to love of fame,
Or sordid thirst of gain;
This will sustain you in distress,
Will every want and woe redress,
Even blunt the dart of pain. LYDIA.

A SONNET.

WHILE pensive on the lonely plain,
Far from the sight of her I love;
To the clear stream I tell my pain,
And sigh my passion to the grove.

Echo, sweet goddess of the wood,
From all thy calls, resound my care:
Thou Stream, along thy silver flood,
Convey my murmurs to the fair.

Tell her, oh! tell the charming maid,
In vain the feather'd warb'lers sing;
In vain the trees extend their shade,
Or blooming Flora paints the spring.

For absent from her dearer arms,
Not all those beauties can invite;
But did she bless her William's arms
Ev'n barren deserts would delight.

Dungannon. WILLIAM.

SONNET TO COL. WARDLE.

IF bounteous Rome, philanthropy to wake,
Decreed that citizen a civic wreath,
Who should spontaneously existence stake,
And snatch one freeman from impending death.

What nobler trophy can reward his worth,
Who, serving millions, in an injur'd state,
Drags vile Corruption, cringing, to the earth,
And brands the satellites her bribes create?

Such meed thou claims't, Oh WARDLE! justly fam'd,
When Luxury the arm of Pow'r unnerv'd,
And Peculation scandalously sham'd
The public trust, and pride poor merit starv'd!

Thou dar'd denounce them.—Such consummate worth,
The *People* shall applaud, while *truth* has friend on earth.

Ballycarry. O.

WRITTEN IN A GROVE, NEAR BELFAST.

Remembrance wakes with all her busy train,
Swells in my breast, and turns the past to pain.
GOLDSMITH.

SWEET Spring is returning, drest out in gay green,
Her wild, simple beauties unveil'd to the day;
New graces play round her, and all the bright scene
Invites us from dull smoky cities to stray:
Ah! oft I will stray to this favourite grove,
Where fond recollection endears every tree—
Where ever through life I am destin'd to rove,
Still, still those lov'd haunts will be dear unto me.

Along by this river, beneath these lov'd trees,
With ——— how often delighted I've been;
The birds too, as now, join'd their notes in the breeze,
And beauty and harmony dwelt in the scene;
And still these delights in the scene may appear
To a mind from distress and inquietude free;
But though those sweet shades to my torn heart are dear,
Yet beauty nor harmony lives not to me.

Thou flow'st silent stream! and for ages may flow,
An emblem, methinks, of eternity's tide;
Thou holdest thy course still majestic and slow,
Nor regardest frail man as he sinks by thy side;
Yet in him whom I mourn was each virtue combin'd,
Nor ever again on thy margin thou'lt see

form where more honour and truth were enshrin'd
Than in his who has render'd thy waves dear to me!

And these are the paths, arm in arm where we've stray'd,
As fondly I hoped we should journey through life;
And here is the spot where with rapture he said
He still bless'd the day which had made me his wife!
O! green be the earth on this seat all the year;
Still sacred to friendship and love may it be;
Though oft its soft grass is bedew'd with a tear,
No spot on the earth is so dear unto me.

Enough, my full heart, from this scene let me go;
Behold where the sun-beams dance bright through the leaves,
Perhaps his warm influence a balm may bestow—
Alas! no, *this* prospect more painfully grieves;
For there stands the cot where each blessing I knew,
Its walls through the green waving foliage I see;
Nor could Fancy picture a more rural view—
Oh view! how belov'd, and how mournful to me.

O cot, where I've tasted of joy and of woe!
As great as e'er falls to humanity's part!
My love in your walls did true happiness know,
And there burst the sighs that at last rent his heart.
Oh! thought full of anguish, for ever in view,
With pain, thou lov'd dwelling, each beauty I see,
But while this sad heart to its feelings beats true,
Thou canst not be view'd with indiff'rence by me.

The sun now declines to his western retreat,
The grave tints of ev'ning steal over the lawn;
O spirit, with whom this fond heart is replete!
Dost thou e'er visit here, at the ev'ning or dawn?—
Oh, heart-soothing thought! thou may'st now round me hover,
And all my fond wishes be known unto thee—
For sure, if permitted, my life thou'lt watch over!
O spirit benign! shed thy influence o'er me.

Wrapt in thought, as I stray, dark shades veil the sky,
How awful these gusts of the wind through the trees!
Methinks now each branch for my loss seems to sigh—
More soothing these blasts than the zephyr's soft breeze.
Ah! scenes dear to mem'ry! thou steals't from my eyes,
Soon dark as the grave ev'ry prospect shall be,
But morning, more glorious, to thee shall arise:
Ah, can morn e'er enliven the wretched like me!

April, 1805. DELIA.

ON SPRING.

THE blackbird whistles joyful notes,
And from a thousand little throats,
What sweet, what varied music flows
On every gentle gale that blows!
Oh! this is rapture! this is Spring,
When all is young, and all is fair,
Who would not try with these to sing,
And cast away all grovelling care!
The dewy earth, gemm'd o'er with flowers,
The warbling birds, the thick'ning bowers,
The balmy air, the lengthening days
All serve delightful hopes to raise:
For now is hope, and now is joy,
No fear of winter shall annoy,
The present bliss, for every day,
We know, new beauties will display.
The branches now, just tipp'd with green,
All dress'd in leaves will soon be seen,
Now scatter'd birds most sweetly sing;—
Soon with full harmony shall ring,
The shady groves, and larks on high,
Will, as they chaunt, approach the sky.
'Tis thus in childhood's charming days,
The mother views the enga[illegible]g ways,
Which, one by one, bud forth and blossom,
She clasps her darling to her bosom,
And present bliss, and hoped for joy,
Mix sweetly as she eyes her boy.

ELIZA.

LINES

To the Memory of the late John O'Neil, esq. of Banvale.

NO longer Banvale, mourn as fair a name,
As e'er to virtue laid an honest claim;
But thank thy God, that he so long did spare
A life so useful, and a friend so dear;
Where dignity and sweetness well combin'd,
To form and harmonize a perfect mind.

So equal portion'd did those virtues blend,
You saw a master, or you found a friend.
If Virtue's child he would thy sorrows heal;
But pride and folly shrunk before O'Neil:
For Nature, to befit him for each part,
Gave angel goodness, and a hero's heart;
The one to aid, the other to reprove,
Both to o'erawe, or gain esteem and love.
He claim'd no title from his ancient blood,
But rear'd this great one! "He was wise and good;"
For well he knew that folly would efface
The well gain'd honours of an ancient race;
So from his fathers he disdain'd to shine,
And added lustre to a princely line.
An humble lot could not his merits hide,
They all bespoke how high he was allied,
With Virtue's aid, birth oft itself reveals,
As Douglas' blood, so flow'd this true O'Neil's.
So purely too, that all the world might scan,
Tyrone's* descendant in an humble man:
Who lived retir'd where his great fathers reign'd
(And thank'd his God that he had so ordain'd)
Shed their pure blood against their country's foes,
Ere upstart lords in tinsel state arose.

Thy hills, O Ulster, and thy fertile plains,
Thy warlike chiefs, and thy undaunted swains,
Once own'd the sway his mighty fathers held
By fame in arms, and country's love impell'd,
Drove from our shores the fierce invading Dane,
And laid in dust the shameful foreign chain.
In ruder days thus shone his sires in arms,
But Peace for him spread forth her golden charms;
And yonder vale where gentle Banna flows,
He made the seat of friendship and repose.
His gen'rous soul, and hospitable door
Were always open to the guiltless poor;
And here the friend of learning too, might find
A cheerful welcome, and a kindred mind.
Or did the gay one, in some lucky hour,
To his fair cot retreat from storm or shower,
He found a man by nature form'd to please,
Of noble aspect, and a graceful ease;
A gentle welcome and a cheerful smile,
And all the courtier but his baneful wile;
What more *he was* deserves a nobler lay;
And what *he is* let hosts of angels say.

R. D.

* He was the lineal descendant of the O'Neils, earls of Tyrone.

ON A WATCH RIBBON,

RECEIVED FROM MISSES J. A. AND J. S. OF CARRICKFERGUS.

Oh, time! fell murderer of the human race,
Whose scythe, unsparing, cuts without regret,
Who takest from memory each dearest trace,
And from the heart restrainst the vital beat.

This little gift reminds me of thy pow'r,
As every moment I thy flight perceive;
By it I mark the tedious, lin'gring hour,
When for my absent friends I vainly grive.

But time may wield his threat'ning sword in vain,
He cannot drive the donors from my heart,
The two dear givers and the gift remain,
And from remembrance never can depart.
Still will I kiss the trifle for their sake,
Assur'd that time our friendship cannot break.

His Majesty's ship L'Argus, J. P.
Cork, Nov. 15, 1808.

THE PRIMROSE.

The fairest harbinger of spring,
Yon Primrose yields its mild perfume;
And foster'd by the vernal shower,
In nature's simple beauty bloom.

But should some cold and win'try blast
Succeed the warmth of April skies,
Behold this lovely child of Spring
'Midst sedges dark neglected dies.

Ye fair, whose very smiles are love,
The Moral of my lay attend;
When cold Indifference shades your brows,
Your beauties fade, your triumphs end:

And like yon fair, but hapless flow'r,
Doom'd to forgetfulness a prey,
'Midst dreary woods, and lonely fields,
Life's tedious moments roll away.

While youth and beauty lend their charms
These happy gifts with care improve;
Though beauty first attracts our eyes,
Your smiles alone secure our love.

Dungannon. WILLIAM.

TO MISS MARGARET A.***

OF CARRICKFERGUS, ON PERCEIVING HER LOOK THOUGHTFUL.

Say, Peggy, why sits meditation,
On that cheerful beauteous brow?
Care might choose some other station,
Sweeter studies claim thee now.

With thee I ne'er could use deceit,
Nor flatter, even though inclin'd,
Thy outward beauties though so great,
Are far exceeded by thy mind.

Dare melancholy then, her seat
E'er fix in that attractive face?
Where Cupid makes his sly retreat,
And points his bow to every place.

Too oft the urchin's power I feel,
Whene'er I cast my eyes on thee,
And still cannot my hopes reveal,
But frequent struggle to be free.

The useless efforts now are o'er,
The language of my eyes can tell,
Against thy power I'll fight no more,
But sigh, and feel—I love too well.

His Majesty's ship L'Argus, J. P.
Cork, Nov. 18, 1808.

SELECT POETRY.

TRANSLATED FROM THE ARABIC, BY THE LATE DOCTOR CARLYLE.

THOSE dear abodes which once contained the fair,
Amidst Mitala's wilds I seek in vain,
Nor towers, nor tents, nor cottages are there,
But scattered ruins and a silent plain.

The proud canals, that once Rayana graced,
Their course neglected and their waters gone,
Among the levelled sands are dimly traced,
Like moss-grown letters on a mouldering stone.

Rayana, say, how many a tedious year,
Its hallowed circle o'er our heads hath roll'd,
Since to my vows thy tender maids gave ear,
And fondly listened to the tale I told?

How oft, since there, the star of Spring that pours
A never-failing stream, hath drenched thy head?
How oft, the Summer's cloud in copious showers,
Or gentle drops its genial influence shed?

How oft, since there, the hovering mist of morn,
Hath caused thy locks with glittering gems to glow,
How oft hath eve her dewy treasures borne,
To fall responsive to the breeze below?

The matted thistles, bending to the gale,
Now clothe those meadows once with verdure gay;
Amidst the windings of that lonely vale,
The teeming antelope and ostrich stray:

The large-eyed mother of the herd, that flies
Man's noisy haunts, here finds a sure retreat,
Here tends her clustering young, till age supplies,
Strength to their limbs and swiftness to their feet.

Save where the swelling stream hath swept those walls,
And given their deep foundations to the light,
(As the retouching pencil that recalls,
A long lost picture to the raptured sight.)

Save where the rains have washed the gathered sands,
And bared the scanty fragments to our view,
(As the dust* sprinkled on a punctured hand,
Bids the faint tints resume their azure hue.)

No mossy record of those once loved seats,
Points out the mansion to inquiring eyes,
No tottering wall, in echoing sounds repeats,
Our mournful questions, and our bursting sighs!

Yet midst those ruin'd heaps—that naked plain,
Can faithful Memory former scenes restore,
Recall the busy throng, the jocund train,
And picture all that charmed us there before.

Ne'er shall my heart the fatal morn forget,
That bore the fair ones from these seats so dear,
I see, I see, the crowding litters yet,
And yet the tent-poles rattle in my ear.

I see the maids with timid steps ascend,
The streamers wave in all their painted pride,
The floating curtains every fold extend,
And vainly strive the charms within to hide.

What graceful forms those envious folds enclose!
What melting glances through those curtains play!
Sure Weira's antelopes, or Tudah's roes,
Through yonder veils their sportive young survey.

The hand moved on—to trace their steps I strove,
I saw them urge the camels' hastening flight,
Till the white vapour, like a rising grove,
Snatched them for ever from my aching sight.

Nor since that morn have I Nawara seen
The bands are burst, which held us once so fast,
Memory but tells me that such things have been,
And sad Reflection adds, that they are past.

* It is a custom with the Arabian women, in order to give the veins of their hands and arms a more brilliant appearance, to make slight punctures along them, and to rub into the incisions a blue powder, which they renew occasionally as it happens to wear out.

REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Fasciculus the 2d of the Belfast Literary Society, on the Linen and Hempen Manufacture, by Doctor Stephenson. Belfast, Smyth and Lyons, 1808.

Concluded from vol. 1. p. 377.

IT was our intention to have resumed our notice of this most valuable article in our last Number, but we postponed it, from a wish to pay it the particular attention, that so very important a subject demands. Our general remarks shall still be reserved for another occasion; in the mean time we lay before our readers that portion of the treatise, which will most interest them at the present moment, the observations of Doctor Stephenson on the quality and culture of flax:

"Most of our flax-seed is imported from Riga, the Low Countries, and America. The farmers who are accustomed to sow Riga, especially if they intend to preserve the seed, prefer it, because it produces the greatest quantity. Although the casks in which it is exported are new, they are often badly finished, and the seed sometimes damaged, and often too long kept. Memel seed has been imported into this Province; it produces short flax and is now generally despised.

"The Dutch is a large, dark coloured seed, some grains of it are nearly black, and flat, and shrivelled, like unripe seed hastily dried, yet it sells as high as Riga seed, and higher than American. It cannot be safely kept through the winter, so as to be sown the following spring. The old, close, damp wine hogsheads in which it is exported, were supposed to be the cause of this evil. The American casks are made of new, dry, well-seasoned oak, and readily admit air. Our merchants believing this theory well founded, changed it from Dutch into American casks, and stored it on well-aired, dry lofts, without any good effect. Probably the damp air of the Low Countries, and unripe seed are the causes.

"The American seed is smaller and rounder than the Dutch, the colour lighter, the skin smoother. The preference of the Dutch seed is contrary to our experience of the advantage of changing the seed of grain to a kind of soil different from that in which it was produced. The soil of America differs more from the soil of Ireland than the soil of the Low Countries, yet the Dutch seed is preferred to the American, from a supposition that it produces larger and longer stalks, and a greater quantity of flax.

"The annual importation of flax-seed from each country into the ports of this kingdom is published in the yearly Transactions of the Linen Board.

"The annual average sale of flax-seed in Belfast, 5,000 hogsheads; in Newry, 9,000; in Londonderry, 11,000, amounting to 25,000 hogsheads. The importations annually exceed the sales by several thousand hogsheads.

"Riga and Dutch seeds are sold at the same rate by the wholesale merchants; New-york, Philadelphia and Boston, at the same rate; New-york and Boston are preferred by farmers to Philadelphia.

In 1805	Dutch seed sold for..	£7	19	3
	American,.....	6	16	6
In 1806,	Dutch,.....	7	19	3
	American,.....	4	11	0
In 1807,	Dutch,.....	7	7	10
	American,.....	4	5	0
In 1808,	Dutch, old.....	10	4	9
	American, new.....	9	2	0

To complete this table we here add the importations and prices this season, from the 1st January, till 26th April.

Dutch, 107 hogsheads, price when landed, 25 to 30 guineas, all sold.—Riga, 3064½ hogsheads, at 30 guineas when landed; 13 guineas, 26th April.—English, 617 hogsheads, at 20 guineas when landed; 11 to 13 guineas, 26th April.—Sicilian, 694.—Canada, 376½ hogsheads, at 12 guineas when landed; 8 guineas, 26th April.—Archangel, 289½ hogsheads, at 12 guineas when landed; 8 guineas 26th April.—total 5148½ hogsheads, from the 1st January till the 26th April, 1809. Some American vessels are daily expected.

Seed found on hand in Belfast, before the 1st of January last, 11 hogs-

heads Dutch; 198 American; 281 barrels Riga. The Sicilian is a very large seed, we learn that it is cultivated for the seed only for its oil, not for the fibrous texture of the flax.

"No new Dutch seed at market this season (1808) a supposed scarcity, and a demand from forestallers occassioned the American seed to be sold in March, 1808, at £11 7 6, some at £14 5 9; in May, the same year, it was sold for £7 7 10½. The great demands, the high prices, the danger and dissappointments induced the Trustees to encourage the farmers of this country to save and sow their own seed. The greatest quantities were raised when premiums were distributed by the acre, and itinerant men sent to inspect the crops.

"Rippling, drawing the bolls from the stalk with an iron comb, was not neglected in the early stages of the linen manufacture, because they spoil the water in which the flax is steeped, and are very troublesome in the grassing and breaking; in this operation the fibrous texture is sometimes injured by the comb; this is prevented by laying the flax in handfuls across each other, or binding it up in small sheaves, and letting it continue a few days in the form of stooks; the cortical part will then be firm, and remain uninjured by the comb.

"In warm and early countries, the rippled bolls may be dried and the seed preserved for sowing; but, the weather of our autumns is so uncertain that we seldom succeed in this practice; when we attempt to dry them on a floor, the heat they acquire destroys the principle of vegetation; the seed is then only fit for the oil mill.

"The farmers most successful in saving seed, pull the flax when fully ripe; if the weather is dry they lay it in handfuls a few days on the ground, six handfuls across each other, in each place; then bind it up in sheaves, stook it till dry, build it on hovels or stands, and thresh it off in the April following. If the flax is early ripe, it is threshed without stacking, and immediately watered, grassed and dressed. The seed is easily separated from the husks by passing it through a common grist mill; care should be taken to keep the stones at such a distance as to break the bolls without injuring the seed.

"The late Sir John Blackwood, of Ballyleedy published a Treatise upon Winter Flax; he sowed the seed in autumn with success, and was imitated by many farmers, but with uncertain profit, because severe frosts heaved the tender plants out of the ground and destroyed them. A light roller drawn over it, might have restored it to the soil, and prevented the loss. If this method would succeed, the crop would be early, and the seed easily saved.

"When flax is nearly ripe, a disease called firing, often attacks it. It appears on the bark like mildew upon the stalks of wheat, and like parasitical plants, injures the stem which supports it. This fungus does not so much injure the seed as the fibres of the flax. It adheres so closely to the rind, as to elude the operations of watering, scutching, hackling, spinning, boiling, weaving, and often of the old method of bleaching; when it appears in the form of black specks on half-bleached Linen, it is called *sprit*. When this disease attacks the standing flax, immediate pulling is the only remedy yet discovered; most of it may be removed by scraping and brushing at the time of hackling, or before hackling, by an antient instrument, too little in use, the *clove*; it resembles curling tongs upon a large scale; the cylindrical side, the tongue, is of wood, the concave side of iron, the sharp edges of which scrape the flax drawn between it and the tongue. The new method of bleaching removes every appearance of sprit.

"When flax stands till the seed is ripe, the fibres are course and not easily divided by the dresser. It does not sell for so much by the stone as finer flax, but the quantity is greater, and the produce of an acre sells for more than if it were fine. The farmers in this province, who have practised the culture of ground for Flax, can testify, that this kind of husbandry is as profitable as any other, even suppose the seed badly saved, and fit only for the oil mill.

"The flax leaves the land in a

good state for wheat; clover-seed is sown with great advantage with the flax-seed, because the flax is early off the ground, and the land is made looser and the clover moulded by pulling the flax. If the clover is luxuriant, the ground will be left in excellent condition for wheat or flax, if sowed with one furrow on the clover lay.

"Potatoes, flax, clover, or wheat, is a very proper course of crops upon clay ground; oats in place of wheat on light land.

"Flax-seed bright in colour, heavy, free from seeds of weeds, and which when bruised, appears fresh, tastes sweet, and not fusty, should be chosen.

"This useful plant thrives in different soils and climates, with various modes of cultivation; it delights most in a deep open loam, kept some years in pasture; when plowed only once, it will be free of weeds, and produce the strongest and best flax. Land which is very free and open, may be sown after potatoes with harrowing only; if it is inclined to clay, it should be plowed and well harrowed before sowing; ground that has produced a good crop after potatoes, will produce good flax, if only once plowed and harrowed. The inhabitants of the Braid get good crops of flax from poor land, without manure, if plowed and harrowed three or four times. Flax should not be sown on rank stiff clay, nor on dry gravel, nor in small fields surrounded with trees or high hedges; these, by keeping it wet, cause it to lodge, and the drops from the trees prevent it arriving at maturity.

"Writers on the cultivation of this plant direct, that all flax-ground should be laid flat, because if it is in ridge and furrow, it will produce stalks unequal in length; this plan is very proper where the ground is deep and dry. If thin wet ground be laid flat, it will produce little in a rainy season; the cultivators of such must yield to necessity, and sow their seed upon the land laid up in ridges; the flax on the ridge must be first pulled, and that in the furrow sometime after. The long and short stalks should be kept separate, else the short may be lost in dressing.

"The quantity of seed sown upon an acre differs with the soil, and the views of the farmer. If seed is sown thick upon a very rich soil, the flax will lodge in wet weather. If a great quantity of Flax, or of seed is desired, it is sown thin. American seed being less than the Dutch, requires more ground. Three Winchester bushels are generally sown upon an acre Irish measure.

"Our time of sowing is usually in April. If the land is free, or brought to a fine mould, rolling causes the ground to support the tender stalk better, and prevents lodging. The best flax in the county of Antrim has been produced by sowing and leaving the seed above ground, without harrowing or rolling. The reason given is, that our seed being mostly sown too thick, the weak seed left uncovered perishes, but the strong seed strikes root, thrives, and produces a regular good crop, without under-growth, by this mode of cultivation. Rolling without harrowing is safest and best for flax and clover seed.

"Weeds are the greatest enemies to flax; their vegetation is most easily prevented by spring-fallowing; if any of their roots should escape the action of the plough and the harrow, and of the sun and the air, they should at this time be removed. The seedling weeds should be carefully pulled, and old weeds with large roots cut when the flax is three or four inches high. If this work is long delayed, and the flax much laid by trampling, it may not rise, or it may grow crooked.

"When the flower has fallen, and the farmer examines the crop, he will find, that some parts of the ground have produced long coarse flax, and short coarse flax with many branches, and full of bolls; these varieties he saves for seed. He will likewise find some long and slender, some short and slender, with few branches and bolls; these he will pull when the stalks turn yellow, before the leaves fall, or the bolls turn hard, and will carefully keep each sort separate. If any of it has been lodged by rain or other causes, he can save it by immediate pulling only.

The coarse, which is intended for seed, must stand till the bolls are sharp pointed, the stalks fully ripe, and managed as before-mentioned."

We hope to give in our next Number some extracts from Doctor Stephenson's Observations on Bleaching, and to accompany them with a few remarks, the result of experience. R.

The Speech of Henry Brougham, esq. before the House of Commons, Friday, April 1, 1808, *in support of the Petitions from London, Liverpool, and Manchester, against the Orders in Council. Taken in Shorthand by Mr. A. Frazer. London, printed by J. M'Creery, for J. Ridgway, Piccadilly,* 1808. *p.p.* 84.

THE subject of the restrictions on trade, occasioned by the Orders in Council affecting us in this corner of the empire, as well as in other places, in our vital commercial interests, we had designed to bring this subject before our readers at an earlier period, but the copy of this work which had been received, was mislaid, and we were necessitated to wait to receive another copy. It is not yet however too late, for unhappily these impolitic restrictions still remain, and notwithstanding the delusive accounts published by ministers and their adherents, to deceive the public, and catch at a momentary popularity, it is very probable that no relaxation will take place in the American regulations, so as to afford us any substantial relief, until Great Britain relax in her arrogant claims, and rescind her orders in council.

Remote from the immediate scene of commercial politics, we are sometimes, as in the modes of dress, a year behind in the fashion. Last year the orders in council occupied the attention of the British merchants; the merchants of London, Liverpool, and Manchester, petitioned against them, and prayed to be heard by themselves or counsel at the bar of the house of commons; their request was granted, and they were permitted to adduce a mass of important evidence, and their counsel, on summing it up, made the speech which is the subject of review.

While this business was going forward, our merchants remained uninterested and aloof, and because they did not immediately feel its effects, but in the mean time were rather aided by it in their avidity of speculation, they felt no concern in the affair—but speculation is often short-sighted, and it is probable they may yet feel the dire effects of this commercial warfare, of which the British orders form the most effective cause.

Already the people, if not the merchants, have been aroused from this state of apathy by the want of the usual supply of flaxseed, and our commercial interests are affected by the high prices of cotton-wool, and other American produce. Tobacco, that comfort, and from habit, that necessary article to the poor, has become exorbitantly high, and though statesmen and rich capitalists may disregard such sufferings, as beneath their notice, yet thus the sum of human misery is increased.

" And sorrow felt, in cottages confin'd,
" Sighs unregarded to the passing wind."

But if the criterion of a good government was justly estimated, as it ought to be, not by the emoluments to the rulers and their dependents, who participate of the plunder, but by the sum total of happiness to the people at large, different sentiments would prevail, and much relief would be experienced from the burthens of an overstrained taxation being removed, and from all injurious restrictions on trade and commerce being withdrawn, so as to give full scope to industry, and the consequent happiness of the community.

It is our design to give the history of the origin of these famous orders in council, and, in the first place, we present to our readers, the Petition from the Merchants, &c. of London, as giving a comprehensive view of the bad effects arising from the measure complained of:

" *To the Honourable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in Parliament assembled, The Petition of the undersigned Merchants, Manufacturers, and others of the City of London, interested in the Trade with the United States of America.*

" HUMBLY SHOWETH,

" THAT your Petitioners contemplate with the greatest anxiety and appre-

hension the alarming consequences with which they are threatened from certain orders in council purporting to be issued "for the protection of the trade and navigation of Great Britain," but on which they are induced, after mature consideration, to believe, that they must be productive of the most ruinous effects. Your Petitioners are duly sensible of the necessity of making every sacrifice of personal interest to promote the strength and resources of the country in the present extraordinary crisis of public affairs, and if the total change introduced into the whole commercial system of this country and of the world by the orders in council, could be conducive to so desirable an object, your Petitioners, great as their losses must be, would submit without a murmur—but understanding that these orders are principally, if not wholly, recommended by an opinion that they will prove beneficial to the commercial interests of this country, they feel it to be their duty humbly to represent their conviction, that this opinion is founded in error, and that if the prayer of their petition be granted, they shall be able to prove that they must be productive of the most fatal consequences to the interests, not only of your Petitioners, but of the commerce and manufactures of the empire at large.

"Your Petitioners will abstain from enforcing by any details their apprehension, that these measures are likely to interrupt our peace with the United States of America, our intercourse with which, at all times valuable, is infinitely more so since we are excluded from the continent of Europe. To this only remaining branch of our foreign intercourse, we must now look for a demand for our manufactures, for many of the most important materials for their support, and for supplies of provisions and naval stores necessary for our subsistence and defence. Your Petitioners feel assured, that they will be able to prove to the satisfaction of your honourable house, that the neutrality of America has been the means of circulating, to a large amount, articles of the produce and manufactures of this country, in the dominions of our numerous enemies, to which we have no direct access.

"That the annual value of British manufactures exported to the United States of America, exceeds ten millions sterling, and,

"That, as our consumption of the produce of that country falls far short of that amount, the only means of paying us must arise from the consumption of the produce of America, in other countries, which the operation of the orders in council must interrupt, and in most instances totally destroy.

"That the people of America, even if they remain at peace with us, must, by a want of demand for their produce, and by the general distress our measures must occasion, be disabled from paying their debts to this country, which may fairly be estimated to amount to the enormous sum of twelve millions sterling.

"That the neutrality of America, so far from being injurious to the other commercial interests of Great Britain, has promoted materially their prosperity.

"That the produce of our Colonies in the West Indies, of our empire in the East, and of our fisheries on the Banks of Newfoundland, has frequently found a foreign market by this means, and,

"That, by the destruction of the neutrality of the only remaining neutral state, all possibility of intercourse with the rest of the world being removed, trade cannot possibly be benefited, but must necessarily be annihilated.

"Your Petitioners feeling, as they do most sensibly with their fellow subjects, the pressure of a war in which their commerce has principally been aimed at by the enemy, would scorn to plead their distress in recommendation of measures inconsistent with the honour and substantial interests of their country; but they humbly rely upon the wisdom of the legislature, that this distress shall not be increased by our own errors, and they confidently believe, that if they are permitted to illustrate by evidence, the facts they here state, and to explain many others which they shall here refrain from enumerating, they cannot fail to establish the conviction with which they are so strongly impressed.

"That the orders in council are founded on the most mistaken opinions of the commercial interests of the empire, and must be perni-

larly fatal to those of your Petitioners.

"Your Petitioners therefore pray, that they may be heard by themselves or counsel, at the bar of this honourable house, and be permitted to produce evidence in support of the allegations of their Petition, or that this honourable house will examine into the nature and extent of their grievances, in any mode which may appear advisable, with a view of affording such relief as this honourable House in its wisdom may think proper.

"*And your Petitioners will ever pray.*"

We now proceed, in the words of the speech, to lay before our readers a full detail of the rise of this measure. Speaking of his clients he says:

"The order of the 7th of January, 1807, was no light matter to them, either in its substantial effects or in the alarm which it created. Their apprehensions of its effects were great and serious indeed. But, confident that they could lose nothing in the estimation of their country, by delaying to urge any objection to it until they had first tried its operation, and experienced actual injury from it, they waited until, in common with others, they found that the inefficacy of that measure was one of its best recommendations. When these new orders in council were issued, it was their purpose to follow the same line of conduct; and after endeavouring to make themselves masters of the meaning of those decrees (an attempt which certainly demanded no trifling degree of attention, and occasioned a very considerable delay) it was much their wish to have found them as harmless as that of the 7th of January; but, although they are very far from flattering themselves that they yet understand the nature of those orders of November last, and although they can scarcely hope for the rare good fortune of ever attaining that knowledge, they are satisfied that they have discovered by the effects which they already have produced upon their own concerns, enough of their nature and import to feel that they are utterly ruinous to them.

"It will afford them much satisfaction to reflect, that they have been the means of bringing before you so great a body of important information, for elucidating a subject as difficult as it is momentous, and to know that whatever fate may await their petition they have done their best to enter a lasting protest upon the journals of the country, against measures more dangerous to its prosperity than any that were ever before attempted. Plans of this sort, sir, are not in their nature long-lived; and after these orders shall be known no more, or only remembered in the ruinous effects they may have produced, the mass of evidence which the petitioners have piled up at your bar, will remain, not perhaps to deter pernicious schemers from again meddling with the commerce of the country, but surely to warn the country from listening to their councils.

"Sir, in proceeding to state the import of this body of evidence it is necessary that I should go back, in the first place, to the decrees of the French government which are stated to have given rise to the measures complained of; and between which and those measures there appears to be some dispute, as to the occasion of the calamities that have arisen.

"Late in the year 1806, Bonaparte, in a moment, it should seem, of elation unhappily by no means unnatural in his situation, thought of issuing a decree which might affect the trade and navigation of this country, as extensively as those other decrees which he had issued upon the Continent, and had executed by half a a million of armed men. This decree was not then for the first time tried, nor was it accounted by him an experiment of a very novel description, although received in this country as something wholly new.—It had been repeatedly tried before, and had in every instance manifestly failed. Not to go back to the war of 1739, I may only observe that in the war of 1756, the principle was broadly laid down by the French government, that the seizure of any manufactures or produce of the British dominions should render the whole cargo among which they were found,

liable to confiscation. Towards the end of the American war a similar principle was partially attempted to be introduced: but of these I need not say much; for in the course of the Revolution-war two decrees similar to the former, though still more near the Berlin decree, were issued. Of these it may be necessary for me to mention the substance. The first of them was issued in 1796, and after a variety of other clauses, it subjects all ships carrying British goods to seizure and detention. We find not merely the detail of the Berlin decree introduced as to the goods, but also the provision requiring a *certificate of origin* (as this document has since been called) which was deemed a *sine qua non* for saving the ship and cargo from detention. A similar decree was issued in 1800, after Bonaparte's arrival in France. It was generally promulgated, and remains, as far as any such decrees can be, in force. In 1797 those belligerent principles were extended from the cargo to affect the ship; and I hold in my hand a decree issued by the council of Five Hundred, enacting that the characters of vessels shall be determined by their cargoes. In consequence of this enactment, every vessel loaded in whole or in part with English goods, was declared lawful prize. The second article declares that no foreign vessel, which in the course of her voyage shall have entered an English port, shall be permitted to enter any port in the French dominions.

"It is surely needless for me to prove that, although *these* orders were thus promulgated, they never were executed. I need not bring evidence to show that *these* commercial decrees were nugatory. After they were issued, the progress of our exports proceeded not merely increasing, but in a short period almost to double the amount of former times. It is notorious that France, in spite of all such prohibitions has been consuming daily more and more of the produce of this country, down to the period of the Berlin edict. But, however inefficacious these boasts may have proved, the enemy, it seems, determined once more to try their effect. He resolved to have another decree at us and at our trade, expecting, perhaps, to frighten, if he could not hurt us. Accordingly, in the month of November, 1806, he issued that one which forms the pretext for our orders in council. This decree consists of three branches. It condemns all cargoes of British produce or manufacture; it threatens the seizure of all vessels going to or from England; and it shuts the ports of the enemy against all vessels which have last cleared out from British ports. It may be asked what chance was there that such a decree as this should succeed? Was it that France had determined suddenly to assemble all her fleets, and venture to send them to sea, which she had not dared to do before? Was it that she then intended to engage all our blockading and cruizing squadrons, which till now, she never durst look in the face? Was it that she purposed in this manner to beat us out of the water, and destroy, as it were, our naval superiority? Or was it that without these preliminary steps, she was by her mere influence and great name upon the continent of Europe, to stop all vessels sailing upon the sea to or from England, to seize every article of our produce which could be found floating on the ocean, to do that which we, even we, with all our naval superiority, are not able to effect? Surely if France had not the power to execute her design in some of these ways, it might have been calmly regarded as a mere empty menace; nay, a stale one too. We might really have hoped, that so vapid and spiritless a boast would not again have taken in those who had been so often before duped into a vain alarm by it. Nevertheless it should seem that the enemy knew us better, for we no sooner heard of it than we fell into our old error of supposing, that, because it was a French manifesto regularly drawn up, and enforced by Bonaparte's power on shore (where it might produce some effect) therefore it was also to have similar effects by sea.

"Sir, until our orders in council were issued, it appears clearly, without any reasoning, to any one who

looks at the subject, that there was no possibility whatever of Bonaparte putting his threats into execution.—But in order to show this more evidently than could possibly be effected by any arguments, we have brought witnesses to your bar, merchants engaged in trade with the Continent who have been able to state distinctly by dates, names, and circumstances, the manner in which those decrees operated.

"In page 55 of the printed evidence, Mr. White an insurance-broker of the city of London, in answer to a question, whether he had occasion to charter any vessels direct to the continent, after the Berlin decree, states to this house, that he did himself charter two American vessels for Amsterdam, the one in the month of January, and the other in March, 1807, which both arrived safe. From this it appears therefore that four months after the Berlin decree, two vessels were chartered to the continent, and landed and sold their cargoes in safety at Amsterdam. He says that these vessels were chiefly laden with cotton, produced by America, and the West-Indies: he knew of their being discharged and that "the ships were paid for their labour," and adds that he was paid his commission as ship and insurance broker. In short, these voyages were performed safely from one end to the other. In the next page the same witness mentions, first, that American vessels prior to last November used to clear out regularly from this country to the continent, and there land their cargoes; and secondly, that a considerable quantity of West-India produce had been taken over in American vessels, subsequent to the Berlin decree in November, 1806. The same witness mentions other instances of voyages having been performed since that decree, and some in which the cargoes of the vessels had gone into the ports of Spain, in spite of the Spanish decree, issued in terms of the Berlin decree, and with cargoes of British East-India produce on board. On being asked whether any considerable branch of trade was carried on in this way, he distinctly adds that other brokers as well as himself had transacted similar business, and that this sort of intercourse with the continent has been considerable.

"The evidence of Mr. Bell, whose distinct and full testimony must be in the recollection of this house, was very strong to the same points. He gives us two extracts from letters which he had received from his correspondents on the continent. On being asked if he had lately received letters from his correspondents in Holland, touching the execution of the commercial decrees in that country, he stated that he had received a letter from his friends in Rotterdam, dated the 7th of September, containing these words: "We are able to assure you the late decree does not affect Americans that may have called in England, provided they have not loaded in England, and that they declare the last port they came from." The decree here alluded to was subsequent to the first Dutch edict, and was issued for the purpose of effecting a more rigorous execution of it. He was asked have you received any letters since from Holland?" To this he answered that he had one dated 22nd of September, from the same house saying, "We repeat, ships touching in England are received here as before." Subsequent even to this date it appears that he received one. It was dated 29th of October, only a fortnight before our orders in council, and concluded by saying, "Prices meantime seem at their level without some new difficulty or broil, meaning, as Mr. Bell said, "if nothing new had occurred." From this it is obvious that since the writer's last letter, being the one just now quoted, no new execution of these decrees had been attempted, otherwise prices could never have kept at their former level.

"After mentioning a variety of cases, in which the merchants had been deceived in their expectations or belief of the execution of the French decree, by the temporary detention of neutral vessels, and afterwards been undeceived by the subsequent release of those vessels at first supposed to have been condemned, Mr. Glennie said that he knew of no one instance wherein the Berlin decree had been carried into

execution upon neutral vessels in France. It appears that this gentleman had various correspondents in various parts of the continent, who wrote to him, not merely touching his own commercial concerns, but also upon matters in which he was indirectly or eventually interested. They gave him the political news of the day so far as they themselves were in possession of it; and so far as it bore upon the interests of trade. And notwithstanding this extensive correspondence, he never had received any one notice of a condemnation, during the whole year that had elapsed between the Berlin and the English decrees. From Mr. Glennie's evidence then it appears that there was no intention in France to execute those edicts for this was a branch of them which she had it in her power to enforce.

"A decree had been issued in Holland, closing the Dutch ports and laying an embargo on their own trade for the better carrying those measures into execution—a measure framed in something of the spirit of our own orders. In allusion to this decree, Mr. Glennie's correspondent says on the 26th of February, 1808, that "the sole object of this letter is to inform you that all vessels arrived since the promulgation of the decrees mentioned in our foregoing, are now released, and even several which have been for many months detained in Flushing, on their way to Antwerp, have also got permission to proceed thither and discharge their cargoes."

"It thus appears, sir, by the evidence of some of the most respectable brokers and merchants of this country, that the Berlin decree was so little executed, that vessels under American colours cleared out to ports of the enemy's country in spite of that, and all the other decrees. But there is other evidence of a less direct nature substantiating this important proposition. I should mention first as to the indirect evidence of the non-execution of the Berlin decree, that remittances came over from the Continent to merchants in this country, some of them members of this house, during the year after that decree, in the same manner, and in at least as great abundance as at any former period. Mr. Glennie said that he was accustomed to receive in former years half a million in remittances from the Continent; and being asked, not by me, but on his cross-examination, if he had experienced a defalcation subsequent to that Berlin decree, answered distinctly, that on the contrary, he had never before received so much by a hundred thousand pounds as during the year after the Berlin decree was promulgated. The other witnesses state the same thing.

"Mr. Glennie also stated to you in detail, the amount of the sums which he paid in different years for postages in the course of his extensive dealings as a merchant. In page 65, you have it in evidence that his whole postage account for the year 1805 amounted to 455*l.* In the year 1806 (being the year before the Berlin decree) it amounted to 515*l.* and in the year 1807, to 640*l.* Now as the Berlin decree was supposed to put a stop to all neutral commerce between England and the Continent, and as this gentleman's postage is chiefly created by receiving remittances for goods arriving in the hostile countries, it was to be expected in consequence of that Berlin decree being executed so rigorously as the defenders of our orders contend, that Mr. Glennie's postage account would have suffered a serious defalcation. No such thing—on the contrary, in 1807, the year after this frightful and well-executed decree, he appears to have paid 640*l.* being about one-fourth more than he had paid the year before it was issued, and double the increase of his account in any former years.

"Those merchants, sir, act in some sort, as bankers on account of American concerns, answering drafts made on them in favour of our manufacturers. When there is any interruption in the trade with the Continent, of course Mr. Glennie and others scruple to honour those drafts on American account, unless they be safe in doing so by having funds in their own hands. It is therefore a test of the execution of the enemy's decrees to inquire how these gentlemen answered the drafts subsequently presented to them. Mr. Glennie states that subsequent to the issuing of the Berlin decree, he continued to

answer drafts on American account, although he had not the sums in his hands, trusting, not, as a speculative man, but with that sort of confidence belonging to a practical merchant—a confidence of whose practical nature he gave the best pledge by staking thousands of pounds daily upon it—trusting I say with this sort of confidence, that the Berlin decree was of no avail whatever against our trade. Had it been otherwise he would have altered his line of conduct in the same manner as I shall show you he afterwards did when you issued your famous orders in council.

"The only other symptom, with which I shall trouble you, of the non-execution of this Berlin decree, is derived from the criterion of insurance; the house will perceive that questions were put to Mr. Martin with a view to bring to a determination, this point respecting the rate of insurance. He was asked, whether, in his knowledge and in the course of his practice as a merchant, shipping to America and chartering and insuring vessels, he had found that the rate of insurance rose after the Berlin decree, upon voyages in American ships from this country to America and back again; and this question was put to him because it was said that a rise from two to three guineas, or one half, had taken place upon this voyage—as if the power of the French navy was so considerable in the Atlantic, that it could make a difference of fifty per cent. in the rate of insurance against French cruisers, employed in executing the Berlin decree—as if the bare promulgation of that decree had at once swept the sea clean of our ships, and given over into the enemy's hands, all the neutral trade that remained. Mr. Martin, as well as all the other witnesses, stated, that there is a rise every winter in consequence of sea risque, the summer rate being from two to two and a half, and that of the winter from three to three and a half per cent. But was there an additional or extraordinary rise in the year after the Berlin decree—in the year 1807? Mr. Martin says that there was not; but that the premiums were much the same as in 1806, that is, the summer two and a half, and the winter three and sometimes four guineas premium.

"The news of the Berlin decree reached Liverpool on the 11th of December 1806, and on the 13th of that month Mr. Martin had occasion to effect an insurance on American risque: it was from America to Liverpool, and was done at three guineas per cent.—Then had the *Berlin decree* raised the insurance? So far from it the premium on the very same voyage, as appears from the evidence, was exactly the sum of three guineas per cent. in the year before. Upon being further questioned whether any rise did at all take place, he says, some little rise was occasioned at first, after the knowledge of the Berlin decree came to Liverpool; but that was a temporary effect: thus he believed the premium would have been five guineas per cent. upon the same voyage outwards, but on the 13th of February the insurance was effected upon the same vessels at three guineas per cent. being the common winter premium.

"I am entitled here to dismiss the subject of the Berlin and other decrees with this one remark, that there is not only no evidence of those measures having been enforced, but every argument and fact against the power of the enemy to urge them in some respects, and in others to show that he had no desire to do so. The evidence of former decrees never having been executed, is entirely of the same sort, and our past experience affords us every argument to show that they were incapable of execution. Our experience, I say, affords us evidence that neutrals will of themselves continue to evade those decrees as long as you yourselves facilitate that evasion. From the facts produced by the testimony of the witnesses who have been examined and *cross-examined*, a consistent statement is made out, that those new decrees of the enemy have been nothing but as so much waste paper; in other words that they are a repetition of the ancient, unprofitable, and vapid gasconade of the French government. It shows us that these decrees had not and could not have had any effect, but to evince to the world that Bonaparte had some desires which he could not gratify; one scheme, at least, which he could not compass—and that with respect to this country, they were of no strength or avail whatever, until we ourselves

lent our aid to them by our own vigorous measures.

"I now come, sir, to the fatal part of the case set forth in the petitions now upon your table. I think I can prove, sir, that we ourselves, blinded and alarmed by the empty menaces of the enemy, which we had often before experienced to be inffectual, terrified by vain fears which we could not describe, and arguing from the very uncertainty of the darkness in which we were, that some evil was impending, we knew not what, countersigned all the decrees of the enemy—backed their futile threats with our real and solid orders—carried them triumphantly into execution by our all powerful navy—and reduced the commerce of the country to that state, to that pitch of degradation, to which, he, our inveterate enemy had wished, but in vain wished, by those decrees to reduce it, and to which by no other earthly power but our own could he have succeeded in bringing it. Sir, I am now to call the attention of the house to the orders in council that have been lately issued by the present government, as they affect the foreign trade of this country; and I have to lament exceedingly upon the part of the petitioners, to whom the truth of the statement I am about to make is a matter of most serious concern indeed, that you are now to contemplate the very reverse of the picture which I have hitherto brought before you. You have seen that attempts have frequently been made by the enemy to ruin our trade, but that they always proved abortive. You are now to exchange that for another prospect, and view the attacks made upon our commerce by our own force and by our own wisdom—that force, and that wisdom, which had in every former instance succeeded in frustrating all invasions of our country—repelling all attacks upon our trade—turning the commerce of neutrals into the channels most beneficial to our interests—and converting to our own purposes, the very bitterest decrees of the French themselves. You will find that in every quarter we have, by our orders in council, been crossing and striking in with the enemy's plans, and supplying those deficiencies in their orders, which they in vain attempted to make up. You will see too what the result has been—that the commerce of this once flourishing country is now brought down to a state lower than it ever was expected to reach, even by the most gloomy prophets, in the worst times of our history."

The great importance of the American trade to these countries, is thus brought forward by our able advocate: a trade not lightly to be given up to please the whims of our speculative statesmen. America has rendered herself independent of us in government, and if the present system of aggression towards her be continued, she will probably be independent of us in commerce at no very distant period. It is clearly proved, that the trade of America with the continent of Europe is even necessary to Great Britain for opening a channel for paying the balance due to our merchants.

"Let me here refer the house to the general testimony of all the witnesses engaged in the American trade, for a knowledge of the particular course of commerce, which we carry on with America by means of the continent. The manufactures of this country being bought up by the merchants, (in some few instances they are exported by the manufacturers themselves) are sent over to America, at two seasons in the year, in what are called by all the witnesses, the *spring* and *fall* shipments. I shall not attend to the latter, but shall take the instances of the spring shipments, in order to elucidate this subject. The orders for these are begun to be received and executed pretty early in the month of November. In December, and part of January, the transmission and preparation of the orders proceeds, and before the end of the month of January, each year, the orders for the spring shipments may be said to be almost completed. Sometimes, indeed, they encroach a little upon the month of February, but substantially you may take it, as proved by all the witnesses, that the orders are wholly received before the middle of the month of January. The goods that are thus sent to America, are chiefly manufactures peculiar to this country; for example these of Man-

chester, which indeed are shipped by no set of men to a greater extent, than by the Petitioners now at your bar. The payment of the goods thus sent over is made in a comparatively small proportion in American produce, chiefly cotton and tobacco, shipped directly from America to this country. This proportion amounts in general to about one part in three, which I will show, if the house will favour me with its attention, when I state for one year the course of American trade with the British empire; for that will be a more satisfactory argument, and go a greater way in demonstrating the necessity of the continuance of such a trade, than if I were to attempt describing it in any other manner.

"In 1804, according to the official accounts printed in America, by order of the houses of Congress, there were shipped from America to England, or I should rather say to the British dominions in Europe, American produce, to the amount of nearly three millions sterling, viz. 2,971,462*l.* reckoning dollars at the usual rate of 4*s.* 6*d.* sterling. From the same part of our dominions there appear to have gone over to America, in that year, goods to the amount of 6,213,645*l.* The exports from America to the British East Indies amounted in the same year to 29,500*l.* and the imports to America from thence amounted to nearly one million sterling, being 979,488*l.* The exports from the United States to the British settlements in North America amounted to 253,627*l.* and the imports from the latter to 178,135*l.* This balance, however, in favour of America on the trade with our Northern colonies, is only an apparent one. The sums which I have read are taken from the duties on importation; and Plaster of Paris, the chief article brought into the United States from our settlements, being absolutely necessary to the American farmer in the cultivation of his land, is not taxed, and of course is omitted in the estimate. It amounts to greatly more than the rest of the imports from Canada; &c. and leaves the balance here, as in general, against America. The exports to the British West Indies, during the same year, amounted to 1,585,722*l.* and the imports from thence in return were 1,066,316*l.* On this head then there appears to be a balance to a considerable amount in favour of the United States. But from this must be deducted the real balance on the New Brunswick trade, at whatever it may be estimated, and even admitting the full balance as now stated, of nearly half a million on the West Indian branch of the account, the whole trade between America and our dominions gives a large excess of imports from us, over what we take in return. For even on this view of the account, the total amount of the exports from America to the British empire, in the year 1804, will be 4,840,058*l.* and the amount of the imports into the United States from the British empire, 8,437,984*l.* being about double the former sum. This great balance is moreover rapidly increasing; for, by taking the average of the years 1802, 1803, and 1804, we find that the excess of imports above exports was only three millions instead of four millions and a half, to which it had risen in 1804.

"The accounts, sir, on the table of this house confirm these statements taken from the American official documents. I hold in my hand a paper ordered to be printed on the 15th of March, and giving the value of imports from the United States, and exports thither, for the years 1805, 1806, and 1807. It appears from this document, that in 1806, the imports from America to Great Britain amounted to 4,360,743*l.* real value, and that the exports from Great Britain to the United States, in the same year, amounted to 12,865,551*l.*

"If we take the average of those three years I have mentioned, viz. 1805, 1806, and 1807, we find the exports to the United States of America amount to upwards of twelve millions sterling, and the average of imports to upwards of four millions and a half; and as the disproportion is increasing, we may say in general, that this country now exports to America three times as much as she imports from thence.

"Are you willing to continue exporting to America, twelve millions and a half of British produce and manufacture, or are you not?—If you are, how are you to be paid for it? It is evident, that you only receive four mil-

lions direct from America; therefore there are no less than eight millions wanting. And America, we all know, can only pay you by trading with the continent. If you wish to cut up that trade by the roots, you commit that old solecism of power, as my Lord Bacon so well calls it;—you wish to command the end, but you refuse to submit to the means. You desire to trade with the United States of America; but you desire, at the same time, to lop off their trade with the enemy, as you call it, which is in other words lopping off the very commerce which you carry on with your enemy, in spite of the war, and in spite of himself—by which you were getting eight millions sterling each year—by which you were enabled to continue a trading nation. You are destroying the only means by which America can pay that enormous amount to you. She must have the opportunity, not only of taking your goods, but of exporting her own, in order to pay you. She must not only export her own goods, she must also re-export yours with them, in order that you may still send them to your enemy, notwithstanding the hostilities you are engaged in—notwithstanding the decrees he is threatening your trade with. So stands the matter in argument, or if you will in theory, and I now invite this house to say, whether it is possible for them to conceive any thing more precise and conclusive than the evidence which has been adduced at your bar, to show that this is also the matter of fact, from the actual history of our trade with America.

"The witnesses most largely engaged in this commerce told you repeatedly (and it was so uniformly stated by each of them, in answer to the same question, that it is unnecessary for me to quote from the testimony of them all) they all concurred in telling you that they received remittances in payment of goods sent to America, from merchants acting as bankers for Americans in this country. Beside this, we have called those bankers to your bar, and have asked them how they came to be possessed of their remittances. They have told you that they have two ways of receiving the funds drawn upon by our manufacturers; that they get part, and but a small part, in goods, directly from the United States, and another part, which is by far the greatest part, in remittances from Europe, by bills arising from the sale of American produce on the continent, made payable to manufacturers and exporters of manufactured goods here. Mr. Bell has stated these remittances as forming two parts in three of the whole account. Mr. Glennie has told you that they are ten times more than he receives in the direct way from America; and Mr. Mann states them at three parts in five. They have said, that with these funds they answer bills drawn in favour of the manufacturers in this country, and at other times balance accounts with the United States. And being asked whether they only accepted those bills in consequence of the remittances in their hands—they said they freely accepted such bills, trusting to the continuance of the trade by which they had formerly received payment; and for the majority of their correspondents, they always accepted bills, whether they had goods already in their hands or not, when they knew consignments continued to be made as before to the continent.

"Now, sir, apply to the English decrees, those tests—the amount of remittances, and the willingness of merchants to accept bills, which you have already applied to the execution of the Berlin decree, and then tell me what you think is the effect of the orders in council upon our foreign trade. You will find it the very contrary of that which might have been expected by the sanguine projectors of the new system. Applicable to this subject, you will find among others the very distinct testimony of Mr. Glennie This gentleman told you, as I formerly observed, that the year after the Berlin decree, so far from having received less from the continent on American account, he had received one-fifth more than in any former year. How much then did he receive since the orders in council? Compare the months January and February, 1807, with the same months in 1808, and this will be the test of the effect of the orders in council upon his trade. He answers

that in the months of January and February 1807, the amount of the remittances he received was about 103,000*l.* In consequence of those boasted measures of wisdom and vigour which were to bring all the trade of America with the Continent through our ports, one would suppose he should have received 200,000*l.* in the same period of the subsequent year.—No such thing.—He received only 34,000*l.* Does he expect even this pittance in the next two months?—Far from it. He tells you this is the last he shall receive; it is the arrears or balance of the former accounts, and no new one can be opened.—Such then is the effect of the orders in council upon Mr. Glennie's traffic; he received instead of 103,000*l.* the sum of 34,000*l.* and in the next two months he cannot receive a shilling.

In every cross question that was put to him, he not only adhered to the statement which he had made, but put it in a stronger and stronger light, if possible, as he proceeded.—This plain fact, made out by his testimony, as well as that of all the other witnesses called to your bar, evinces to demonstration, that while the orders in council continue, you must continue to be cut off from receiving remittances, and that you are consequently with your own right-hand, cutting off, by two-thirds, your vast traffic with America.

"Having stated the substance of Mr. Glennie's evidence, it would be in vain to go through that of the other witnesses. It was proved that bills were refused on account of the want of remittances. The particulars of those bills, and the sums for which they were drawn, were stated at your bar. In this unprecedented state of things, an unheard of practice appears to have crept into the course of commercial transactions. The statement of insolvency or no funds, is the usual ground of protesting or refusing bills; but the reason in this case is, not that the drawers are insolvent; not that they have any fears of the insolvency of the drawers, for they had an entire confidence in the solvency of their correspondents:—but that they had no funds in their hands, and expected to get none; and knowing well the cause of all this, they wrote down on the protest, that they could not accept these bills *because of the orders in council!*"

We have entered into this subject at considerable length, from a sense of its importance. We wish our readers to become acquainted with it, and we think to give a full detail of this speech, and copious extracts from it, is the best mode of putting them into possession of this measure of state-policy, to which we have so often alluded in the Commercial Reports, and to which we fear increasing distress, arising from its pernicious effects, will force us to recur in our future numbers.

In our next we design to continue this article with further extracts from the important documents furnished by this speech. The present apparent relaxation on the part of America with respect to the embargo, does not appear likely to produce any change ultimately beneficial to this country, unless a spirit of conciliation influences our councils at home, an event we ardently desire, but of which we entertain great fears. K.

To be continued.

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MONTHLY RETROSPECT OF POLITICS.

THE threatening appearances which presented themselves to the view of the politician at the close of the last month, have at length been realized; uncertainty is removed, or to speak more properly, our anxiety is transferred from the origin of the war to its result. We see all the powers of Europe with a strange fatality presenting themselves singly and successively to the sword of Bonaparte, as if their main object in resisting was to augment the splendours of his triumph.

The Spanish war is still protracted. It is the dying embers of a mighty conflagration, that sends forth intermitting sparks, raising a momentary expectation that the flame is about to break out afresh, but in reality only hastening the period of utter extinction. The Junta of Seville still performs the functions of a legislative and executive body; and Spanish armies are still heard of. Rumour catches at every whisper, and the exultation of victory one day is checked by the gloom of treachery, and defeat on the next. We are told that the people of Gallicia, irritated by the ill treatment of their ferocious masters, are again up in arms, and have signalized themselves by some successful attacks, in consequence of which Marshal Soult, who commands the French forces in that part, has found it necessary to retreat into Portugal. His retreat, if it be the fact, has been attended with advantageous circumstances to his cause. The city of Oporto, after a defence not very creditable to the military character of the Portuguese, has surrendered, and our troops still remaining in that country, seem to afford the only hope of preserving the capital from again becoming the head-quarters of the invading army. So conscious are the Portuguese of their incapacity, that an English officer, General Beresford, has been appointed Generalissimo of the Portuguese army. He has commenced his operations by a Manifesto. That an English General, accustomed to command freemen, should employ this as a preparative to rouse the energies of an oppressed people into action, appears very natural, but of its effect on a nation of slaves, we cannot but entertain great doubts. The general character of the Portuguese gives rise to fears that success under the command of a foreigner may be as injurious as defeat. By this time the arrival of Sir Arthur Wellesley has augmented the English army in that country to a very great amount, and if ably seconded there can be no doubt of their retaining possession of the country against the forces at present brought against it. The advantages of the acquisition or the possibility of retaining it are more uncertain. An impoverished country, an effeminate nobility, a population either torpid or discontented, afford but little cause for encouraging the hope that much more benefit can be derived from the possession, than the excluding of the common enemy; the same causes, together with an extended frontier and a powerful force in reserve to overwhelm resistance seem to render the latter problematical. It must be evident to all, that if Portugal be retained, it must be retained by an English force, and such a force, as England scarcely can maintain without depriving other parts of the Empire of their proper means of defence, or supporting the military establishment in all parts, by an excessive drain from the population of the nation. The same reasoning bears also upon Spain. But the affairs of both these countries have already lost a great share of interest by the new antagonist that has started up to oppose the French Emperor in his rapid course of victory.

For the causes of the Austrian war, in order to avoid repetition, we refer the reader to the political retrospect of last month, in which it was asserted that it was forced on that unfortunate country by the domineering spirit of France, which would be satisfied with nothing but the total sacrifice of its independence. The Archduke's proclamation* evinces this.

*See official Documents, p. 310.

He there declares that every concession consistent with the honour or safety of the empire had been ineffectually made, and that this is a war of self defence. A passage in his manifesto has excited much inquiry. He states that the exertions of the native army of Austria is to be seconded by external succours, it is not yet known what these succours are, conjecture at first turns upon the Emperor of Russia; but his interests are too closely implicated with those of his present ally to render a change advantageous, unless indeed, the visit of the Queen of Prussia may have effected an alteration in his political relations.

Prussia or some of the princes of the German confederation are thought by others, to be alluded to; disgusted as they may be with the servile vassalage under which they at present bow, it can hardly be thought that they would risk their all on such a precarious stake. England is also mentioned, and with great probability, while some go so far as to suppose that it is but a delusive ray of hope offered to encourage the desponding spirits of the Germans. Of men, we trust England will be very sparing; of treasure, we doubt not she will be lavish, profusely lavish; the augmentation of the loan for the current year from ten millions, as was lately stated with no small degree of triumphant exultation to fifteen millions, confirms this supposition. Of the two, the latter is no doubt preferable; commerce can supply new pecuniary resources;

> But a bold Peasantry, their nation's pride,
> When once destroy'd can never be supplied.

On the present state of Turkey, and the probable consequences of the late tumultuary revolution there, we hazarded some conjectures; these, by the latest accounts appear to be realized; the capital is still in a state of ferment, the executive distracted, unsettled, and at the mercy of a fierce and lawless soldiery; the minister that calculates on effectual succour from such a government, must be very weak, or reduced to the greatest extremities.

Let us now turn our eyes to the North. The insurrection which broke out in Sweden at the close of last month, has assumed the features of a permanent well concerted revolution. The people or a great majority of them, irritated by the destructive war in which they had been so long and so unsuccessfully engaged, and attributing the loss of national honour and territory partly to the loss of their old system of government, and partly to the imputed incapacity of the present possessor of their usurped rights, all sighed for the termination of a war by which nothing could be gained and all might be lost. The Russians had had possession of Finland and several of the islands; they threatened still greater encroachments; the commerce of the country was in a great measure annihilated; the king was disliked by most, and living in a state of austere seclusion, an imitator of his immortal predecessor, without his abilities, encreased the public odium by the comparison of the state of Sweden at each period. The opportunity was favourable, and men were found with ability sufficient to take advantage of it. The Duke of Sudermania, supported by the army, seized on the goverment, and imprisoned the king, when making a vain attempt at resistance. His subsequent proclamations are well adapted to make a favourable impression on the people, by holding out the restoration of their former mixed form of government, and promising to call a Diet speedily. The beginning of May is fixed for that purpose. Till then our judgment of the revolutionists must be suspended. In the mean time it is said that the king's cause has been espoused by a large party of his subjects. If so, a civil war must ensue, the consequence of which will be, the interference of Russia, either as arbiter or ally, an interference in either case equally fatal to the independence, we may say the existence of the Swedish monarchy.

England has had a gleam of success, to lighten the gloom which succeeded the disgraceful evacuation of Spain. Disgraceful it was, not to the army, for their excellence has been acknowledged, even by the enemy; but to the ministry, whose misconduct forced a gallant officer into a situation where he was prevented from acting from his own judgment, and suffered the mortification

of seeing one of the finest armies that ever was destined to revive the ancient fame of Britain, moulder away under all the hardships of unsuffered defeat and flight. In the West Indies, the surrender of fort Bourbon has reduced the whole island of Martinique. In a commercial point of view, the acquisition cannot be thought very valuable, at a time when the want of a vent for West Indian commodities is so severely felt. As a military post, its possession may be necessary, by depriving the enemy of a receptacle for the privateers which so incessantly annoyed our trade. The French squadron, which after its escape from Brest, had taken refuge in Basque roads, has been nearly destroyed.

Of the squadron which had been observed in a southern latitude no accounts have as yet reached England.

With respect to domestic concerns, although the inquiry into the abuses of the military departments of government has terminated, its effects have not yet ceased. It was indeed of a nature fitted to excite a spirit of investigation and reform not easily to be checked or stifled. It has extended; the voice of the people has gone forth, and will be heard. Meeting after meeting in every part of England are the organs of this universal voice. At first it was weak and timid, with difficulty causing itself to be heard in the metropolis. But the opposition it met with served only to rouse the spirit of the people. They felt that opposition in such a case was adding insult to injury. Succeeding events have increased the eagerness for investigation and reform. Many circumstances which transpired during the inquiry, have proved the existence of similar abuses in other departments. The management of the East India company's affairs in particular have come under an investigation before a committee of the house of commons, in the course of which, amongst a number of instances of corruption and undue influence, one has appeared which seems to implicate a nobleman, who stands much higher in the good opinion of the royal cabinet than in the confidence of the people. The part of the evidence before the house, respecting him, tends to involve him in a traffic of East India appointments for increasing his parliamentary influence. His conduct will no doubt be the subject of a more particular inquiry.

It is much to be regretted that this inquiry had not taken place some years earlier; the affairs of Ireland would then have formed a part of it, and we should have been made acquainted with the secret means by which the union was effected and the actors in that memorable tragedy of the death of Irish independence exhibited in their proper characters.—But the time is now past, and the people of this country ought to change useless regret into an active sentiment of co-operation with the friends of reform in England, as the only means to compensate for the loss they have suffered.

Sentiments of surprise and disappointment have been raised in the breasts of many on observing the apathy with which the parliamentary transactions are received in this country. It is certainly matter of grief, but not of surprise or disappointment. Suffering under the effects of a civil commotion, the wounds of which have scarcely yet had time to heal, deprived, by the suspension of the habeas corpus act, of the blessings of that constitution whose fundamental principle is the right of personal liberty and private property, with the sword of power hung up *in terrorem* over the head of every individual in the kingdom, an arbitrary power granted to the British Minister cutting the hair by which it is suspended, and crushing at will the victim of his displeasure, it were indeed matter of surprise and wonder if the nation would venture fully to express its feelings. Yet notwithstanding these awful impediments, such is the sensation excited by the recent discoveries, that it has extracted an expression of indignation. The city of Derry has voted an address of thanks to Colonel Wardle, the town of Belfast is about to second its resolutions. It has been said that the latter place should have been among the first to come forward on such an occasion. We think otherwise. It is not the first burst of popular indignation, stimulated by the voice of dis-

contented partizans: it is the solemn, matured well digested sentiment of all, in a cause where all are concerned, where the voice of party is unheard, where the very existence of party is lost in the universal feeling excited by such a vital blow at the honour and existence of the nation.

Next month we shall have the pleasure of announcing the resolutions of the meeting convened for this purpose. We are confident they will be worthy of the place whence they come, and the cause by which they are excited. We are confident that they will make some impression; happy, if they lead to the point to which they are directed, by turning the minds of the directors of our nation from private interest to public welfare; and teaching them this most important truth, that "REFORM ALONE CAN PREVENT REVOLUTION."

OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS.

PROCLAMATION OF THE ARCHDUKE CHARLES.

"*Vienna, April* 6. The protection of our country calls us to new exploits. As long as it was possible to preserve peace by means of sacrifices, and as long as these sacrifices were consistent with the honour of the throne, with the security of the state, and with the welfare of the people, the heart of our bountiful Sovereign suppressed every painful feeling in silence; but when all endeavours to preserve happy independence from the insatiable ambition of a foreign conqueror prove fruitless, when nations are falling around us, and when lawful sovereigns are torn from the hearts of their subjects—when, in fine, the danger of universal subjugation threatens even the happy states of Austria, and their peaceable, fortunate inhabitants—then does our country demand its deliverance from us, and we stand forth in its defence.

"On you, my dear brother-soldiers, are fixed the eyes of the universe, and of all those who feel for national honour and national prosperity. You shall not share the disgrace of becoming the tools of oppression. You shall not carry on the endless wars of ambition under distant climes. Your blood shall never flow for foreign fleets and foreign covetousness; not on you shall the curse alight of annihilating innocent nations; and over the bodies of slaughtered defenders of their country to pave the way for a foreigner to the usurped throne. A happier lot awaits you; the liberty of Europe has taken refuge under our banners. Your victories will loose their fetters, and your brothers in Germany, yet in the ranks of the enemy, long for their deliverance. You are engaged in a just cause, otherwise I should not appear at your head.

"On the fields of Ulm and Marengo, whereof the enemy so often remind us with ostentatious pride, on these fields will we renew the glorious deeds of Wurtzburgh and Ostrach, of Lipsingen, (Stockach) and Zurich, of Verona, of the Trebbia and Novi. We will conquer a lasting peace for our country; but this great aim is not to be attained without great virtues. Unconditional subordination, strict discipline, persevering courage, and unshaken steadiness in danger, are the companions of true fortitude. Only an union of will, and a joint co-operation of the whole, lead to victory.

"My Sovereign and brother has invested me with extensive powers, to reward and to punish. I will be everywhere in the middle of you, and you shall receive the first thanks of your country from your general on the field of battle. The patriotism of many of the Austrian nobility has anticipated your wants; this is a pledge in the fullest measure of the public gratitude; but punishment shall, with inflexible vigour, fall on every breach of duty: merit shall meet with reward, and offence with animadversions without distinction of person or rank; branded with disgrace shall the worthless person be cast out to whom life is dearer than his and our honour.—Adorned with the marks of public esteem, will I present to our Sovereign and to the world, those brave men who have deserved well of their country, and whose names I will ever carry in my heart.

"There remains one consideration, which I must put you in mind of; the soldier is only formidable to the enemy in arms; civil virtues must not be strangers to him: out of the field of battle, towards the unarmed citizens and peasants he is moderate, compassionate, and humane: he knows the evils of war, and strives to lighten them. I will punish every wanton excess with so much greater severity, as it is not the intention of our monarch to oppress neighbouring countries, but to deliver them from their oppressors, and to form with their princes a powerful bond, in order to bring about a lasting peace, and to maintain the general welfare and security.

"*Soon will foreign troops, in strict union with us, attack the common enemy.* Then, brave companions in arms! honour and support them as your brothers: not vain-

glorious high words, but manly deeds, do honour to the warrior,—by intrepidity before the enemy you must show yourselves to be the first soldiers.

"Thus then, shall I one day lead you back to your own country, followed by the respect of the enemy, and by the gratitude of foreign nations, after having secured by your arms an honourable peace, when the satisfaction of our monarch, the approbation of the world, the rewards of valour, the blessings of your fellow-citizens, and the consciousness of deserved repose await you.

"CHARLES, Archduke,
"Generalissimo."

PROCLAMATION,

ISSUED BY THE DUKE OF SUDERMANIA, ON HIS ASSUMING THE GOVERNMENT.

"We, Charles, by the Grace of God, Hereditary Prince of Sweden, the Goths, Vandals, &c. Duke of Sudermania, Grand Admiral, &c. &c. do declare—That, under existing circumstances, his Majesty is incapable to act, or of conducting the important affairs of the Nation: We have, therefore (being the nearest and only branch of the family, of age) been induced, for the time being, as Administrator of the Kingdom, to take the reins of Government into our hands, which, with the help of the Almighty, we will conduct so that the Nation may regain Peace, both at home and abroad, and that Trade and Commerce may revive from their languishing state.

"Our inviolable intention is, to consult with the States on the means to be taken to render the future time happy to the people of Sweden.

"We invite and command, therefore, all the inhabitants of our Nation, our Forces by Sea and Land, and also the Civil Officers of all degrees, to obey us, as our real intention, and their own welfare demand.

"We recommend you all to the protection of God Almighty.

"Done at Stockholm Palace, March 13, 1809.

(Signed) "CHARLES.
"C. LAGERBRING."

Extract of a Letter from Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, to Viscount Castlereagh; dated Corunna, Jan. 13.

"SITUATED as this army is at present, it is impossible for me to detail to your Lordship the events which have taken place since I had the honour to address you from Astorga, on the 31st of December: I have therefore determined to send to England, Brigadier-General Charles Stewart, as the Officer best qualified to give you every information you can want, both with respect to our actual situation and the events which have led to it.—Your Lordship knows, that had I followed my own opinion, as a military man, I should have retired with the army from Salamanca. The Spanish armies were then beaten; there was no Spanish force to which we could unite, and I was satisfied that no efforts would be made to aid us, or to favour the cause in which they were engaged.—I was sensible, however, that the apathy and indifference of the Spaniards would never have been believed; that had the British been withdrawn, the loss of the cause would have been imputed to their retreat, and it was necessary to risk this army to convince the people of England, as well as the rest of Europe, that the Spaniards had neither the power nor the inclination to make any efforts for themselves. It was for this reason that I made the march to Sahagun. As a diversion it succeeded; I brought the whole disposable force of the French against this army, and it has been allowed to follow me, without a single movement being made to favour my retreat. The people of the Gallicias, though armed, made no attempt to stop the passage of the French through the mountains. They abandoned their dwellings at our approach, drove away their carts, oxen, and every thing that could be of the smallest aid to the army. The consequence has been, that our sick have been left behind; and when our horses or mules failed, which on such marches, and through such a country, was the case to a great extent, baggage, ammunition, stores, &c. and even money, were necessarily destroyed or abandoned. I am sorry to say, that the army, whose conduct I had such reason to extol on its march through Portugal, and on its arrival in Spain, has totally changed its character since it began to retreat. I can say nothing its favour, but that when there was a prospect of fighting the enemy, the men were then orderly and seemed pleased and determined to do their duty. In front of Villa Franca the French came up with the reserve, with which I was covering the retreat of the army; they attacked it at Calcabellos. I retired covered by the 95th regiment, and marched that night to Herresias, and from thence to Nogales and Lugo, where I had ordered the different divisions which preceded, to halt and collect. At Lugo, the French again came up with us. They attacked our advanced posts on the 6th and 7th, and were repulsed in both attempts, with little loss on our side. I heard from the prisoners taken, that three divisions of the French army were come up commanded by marshal Soult; I therefore expected to be attacked on the morn-

ing of the 8th. It was my wish to come to that issue; I had perfect confidence in the valour of the troops, and it was only by crippling the enemy that we could hope either to retreat or to embark unmolested. I made every preparation to receive the attack, and drew out the army in the morning to offer battle. This was not marshal Soult's object. He either did not think himself sufficiently strong, or he wished to play a surer game by attacking us on our march, or during our embarcation. The country was intersected, and his position too strong for me to attack with an inferior force. The want of provisions would not enable me to wait longer; I marched that night; and in two forced marches by advancing for six or eight hours in the rain, I reached Betanzos on the 10th instant. At Lugo, I was sensible of the impossibility of reaching Vigo, which was at too great a distance, and offered no advantages to embark in the face of an enemy. My intention was then to have retreated to the peninsula of Betanzos, where I hoped to find a position to cover the embarcation of the army in Ares or Redes Bays; but having sent an officer to reconnoitre it, by his report I was determined to prefer this place. I gave notice to the Admiral of my intention, and begged that the transports might be brought to Corunna; had I found them here on my arrival on the 11th, the embarcation would easily have been effected, for I had gained several marches on the French. They have now come up with us, the transports are not arrived; my position in front of this place is a very bad one; and this place, if I am forced to retire into it, is commanded within musquet shot, and the harbour will be so commanded by cannon on the coast, that no ship will be able to lie in it. In short, my lord, general Stewart will inform you how critical our situation is.—It has been recommended to me to make a proposal to the enemy, to induce him to allow us to embark quietly; in which case he gets us out of the country soon, and this place, with its stores, &c. complete; that otherwise we have the power to make a long defence, which must cause the destruction of the town. I am averse to make any such proposal, and am exceedingly doubtful if it would be attended with any good effect, but whatever I resolve on this head, I hope your Lordship will rest assured, that I shall accept no terms that are in the least dishonourable to the army or to the country. I find I have been led into greater length, and more detail, than I thought I should have had time for; I have written under interruptions, and my mind much occupied with other matter. My letter, written so carelessly, can only be considered as private. When I have more leisure, I shall write more correctly; in the mean time, I rely on general Stewart for giving your lordship the information and detail which I have omitted. I should regret his absence, for his services have been very distinguished; but the state of his eyes makes it impossible for him to serve, and this country is not one in which cavalry can be of much use. If I succeed in embarking the army, I shall send it to England; it is quite unfit for further service until it has been refitted, which can best be done there. JOHN MOORE."

PUBLIC OCCURRENCES.

IRISH.

ULSTER.

The great utility of an increased intercourse in this part of the country, by means of the various Coaches that have lately been established, is generally admitted; it is therefore with pleasure, we notice the intention of the Proprietors of the Belfast and Derry Mail Coaches, to run a Day Coach from Cookstown to Belfast, by Moneymore, Magherafelt, Castledawson, Toome, Randalstown, &c. We also are informed, that arrangements have now been completed for running the Mail Coach the whole line of road from this Town to Derry; to commence on Monday the 1st of May. This will, no doubt, prove a great convenience to passengers, and when we consider the difficulties which have been surmounted in this undertaking, and that the fares, &c. are, notwithstanding, as moderate as on the well-frequented Dublin road, we are inclined to think that such an establishment is entitled, in a peculiar degree, to the public patronage.

On Monday the 20th of March, a ewe, the property of Mr. William Claney, of Quarterland, near Bangor, had 5 lambs; three of them males, and two of them females—all stout, and likely to do well.

PLOUGHING-MATCH .....The following should have appeared in our last number, being a subject we wish to pay marked attention to, but was overlooked.—Several Gentlemen in the parish of Maralin, lately set on foot a subscription for offering premiums to the best plough-

man, and a match was accordingly held on the 14th of March, on the lands of Lurgantamery, near Dromore, where six ploughs appeared on the ground, each drawn by two horses, and having no driver. The work was in general well done. The judges were chosen before the work commenced, and retired from the ground until it was finished, that no imputation of partiality might justly attach to them from their knowing the persons who executed it.

The first premium, of three guineas, was adjudged to Pat. Lavery, ploughman to Mr. John Christy, of Kircassock; the second, of two guineas, to John Downy, ploughman to Mr. Sloan, of Ballymakeowan; and the third, of one guinea, to Richard Brinkman, jun. of Tullycairn, holding his own plough. The judges were unanimous in their decision—and being respectable men and farmers, without either interest or prejudice to bias their judgment, their decision was satisfactory to all who were not connected with those who did not obtain the premiums they expected, or had committed themselves by staking money on their performance.

ANTRIM....*Married*.....Mr. John Hamilton, of Fairview, to Miss M'Kibbin, of Belfast. Capt. Ritchie, to Miss Nichol, of Belfast. At Glenluce, Mr. Wm. Kerr, to Miss Isabella Learmouth, of Stranraer. At Larne, the Rev. I. C. Ledlie, to Miss Holmes.

Died....At Lambeg, aged 25, Mr. John Wolfenden. At Lyle, near Templepatrick, Mrs. Gibson, aged 75. Aged 18, Miss Carleton, daughter of Mr. C. Carleton. In October last, of a fever at Kingston, Jamaica, J. Kelly aged 16 years, son of the late Captain Kelly of this town.—In Nov. last, at Kingston, Jamaica, in his 18th year, J. Fitzsimmons, son of Mr. J. Fitzsimmons of High-street, Belfast. On Wednesday the 19th, Mrs. Kirkpatrick, wife of Mr. R. Kirkpatrick, of this town, merchant. On the 15th instant, aged 82, Mr. J. Smith, tanner, a respectable inhabitant of this town.

ARMAGH....*Married*....Mr. W. Boyd of Pointzpass, to Miss J. Kelly of Eliza-hill, near Banbridge.

Died....At Guilford, aged 56, Abraham Atkinson, one of the people called Quakers. He was the person who first introduced the export lawn-trade, from this country to England. Mr. S. Kidd of Linenvale near Keady. Miss J. Brown daughter of the late Mr. J. Brown merchant. Mr. John Barnes. Mr. John Prentice.

DOWN....*Married*....At Ballylentogh, near Hillsborough, Dr. Allen of Comber, to Miss Graham, daughter of W. Graham esq. of Linistrain. At Lurgan, R. M'Kee of Armagh, esq. to Miss E. J. Hudson of Lurgan.

Died....At Killileagh, aged 22, Mr. T. Kennedy. On the 19th, Mr. Charles M'Quillin, aged 80.

FERMANAGH....*Married*....At Enniskillen, Mr. W. Clarke, architect, to Miss P. Acheson.

LEINSTER.

The Dublin Society has lately directed its attention to the laudable purpose of encouraging the culture of Hemp in this country; a measure which will, no doubt, be attended with the happiest consequences. The following is the resolution published on the 23d ult.

"That a premium of forty shillings an acre be given for the first 750 acres of ground sowed with Hempseed, on or before the 2d of May, in the year 1809; and if a greater quantity of ground should be claimed for than 750 acres, the sum of £1500 will be rateably divided amongst the Claimants."

To entitle Claimants to the above premium, the following terms must be complied with:

"An Affidavit of the Claimant, that the Ground was in sufficient order for sowing Spring Corn, and that there were sowed four bushels of good Hempseed* on each and every acre so claimed for, on or before the 2d day of May, 1809; the aforesaid claim, together with a certificate of a neighbouring Magistrate upon view, to be sent into the Secretary's Office on or before the first day of December, 1809.

DUBLIN....*Married*....W. Johnson, esq. of the Monaghan Regiment, to Miss H. Savage of Prospect, co. Down.

Died....At his house, in Merrion-street, aged 81, the Right Hon. John M. Mason. In Merrion-square, the Countess Dowager of Mayo.

QUEEN'S-COUNTY....*Died*....On the 5th instant, in the 77th year of his age, James Pim, of Rushin near Mountrath, one of the people called Quakers. A man whose many amiable qualities endeared him to his family and friends.

MUNSTER.

CORK....*Married*...T. Fuller Harnet, esq. to Miss Wilkes of Ballinacolly.

LIMERICK....*Married*....Mr. S. B. Goggin, bookseller, to Miss Drew, of Scariff, county Clare.

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* The Society think it necessary to recommend five bushels; but if very carefully sowed and covered, four may answer; and it is requested that an accurate Return of the Produce may be made with each claim.

AGRICULTURAL REPORT.

From March 20, till April 20, 1809.

The weather since last Report, has been dry, and favourable for sowing the spring-corn, which has been generally got into the ground in good order.

The wheat crops have not made a progress equal to their appearance last month, the severe frosts at night have had the effect to check the growth of the early, and, in some degree, injure the late crops. In several districts there are complaints of the ravages of the cut worm, particularly where the wheat was sown after clover.

The farmers are now busily employed in preparing their ground for potatoes; it is much to be wished that they would more generally adopt the drill culture of that valuable root, which would not only afford them the advantage of a larger crop from the same quantity of manure, but free their land from weeds, those robbers of the soil, more effectually than can be done in the lazy-bed way.

The only branch of husbandry that seems at a stand is flax, very little of which has yet been sown; the exhorbitant price of seed, added to the reports circulated, of importations from America being expected, have induced the land-holder to decline purchasing, in hopes of a favourable change; the retailers of seed have also been discouraged from buying at the present prices, lest it should prove a bad speculation, as was the case last year, and of course there has been no opportunity presented to the smaller grower of flax to supply themselves in the usual way.

The reports of large importations of seed from America have been, within these two or three days revived, and will probably be the means of protracting the sowing beyond the proper season, and unless realized by the arrival of the seed, be productive of great disadvantage to the country.

Oat meal and potatoes have continued nearly stationary since last Report.

Fat cattle, from the early consumption of the turnip-crops, as was hinted in a former Report, are become scarce, and the price of beef has considerably advanced in consequence.

COMMERCIAL REPORT.

At the conclusion of last Month's Report, great doubts hung over the exact state in which the American Embargo stood; these are now partly cleared up, and it appears that the Congress conceding to the cry of the mercantile party, have permitted the sailing of their vessels to neutral ports, while they are prohibited under heavy penalties, from coming directly either to Great Britain or France, or any of their immediate dependencies. Holland is not included in this restriction, nor is the island of Madeira; a proof of the impartiality of America, notwithstanding the clamour of her adversaries: an indirect trade is thus sanctioned with both countries. Madeira being as much virtually a dependency on Great Britain as Holland is on France. The Americans have also passed a non-intercourse act with Great Britain and France, to take place on the 20th of next month, the effects of which if not softened by conciliatory measures on the part of those mighty rivals, the belligerent powers, may not unlikely lead to war with one or other, or perhaps with both of them. The Americans, have, however left an open in this non-intercourse act, for reconciliation, with whichever of these powers, which may first recede from their hostile decrees, or orders in council. A ray of hope is held out in some late conversations in parliament, that prudent concession may take place with regard to that highly impolitic measure, the British orders in council.

In America, matters appear to stand thus: the great body of the people are firmly agreed to resist what they consider the aggression on neutral rights; they consequently support the system of the executive, which is in this respect the index of the popular feeling of a great majority of the United States. But on the mode of carrying into effect this opposition, some diversity of opinion appears to prevail. The Mercantile interest wish for an opportunity to send off their superfluous articles; hence the relaxation in the embargo laws, that Great Britain and France may receive American produce through the subterfuge of calling at neutral ports. But it is worthy of observation, that though they admit their own articles to be exported, yet by the operation of the non-importation act, their ports remain closed against the importation of British or French manufactures. And while this continues to be the case, the ill-judged policy of the British orders in council operates, as a high premium in favour

of American manufactures. The non-intercourse act is a measure of still stricter regulation, by which all vessels of Great Britain or France are prohibited from entering into the ports of the United States. It is greatly to be feared that unless conciliatory measures are speedily adopted by our government, actual hostilities may shortly take place. If British cruizers interrupt American vessels going to Holland, war seems to be the inevitable consequence.

Connected with the obnoxious policy of these orders, and of most momentous importance to us in this quarter of the empire, is the expectation of the arrival of a timely and sufficient supply of flax-seed from America, which after all the hopes, which have been held out, and the sanguine expectations which have been formed, remains at the moment of writing this report (the 26th) a very doubtful speculation.

But whether the much wished for, and highly needful supply arrive in time or not, we are entitled to feel no obligations to our statesmen, their adherents, or their echoers. They risked all on a doubtful throw, or to use the figurative language, to which Irishmen are said to be prone, contented themselves with "skying a copper," during the winter, when something effectual might have been done, to remove the dreaded calamity, and whether flax-seed or distress succeeded, depended no more on their sagacity or foresight, than whether "skull or music," was the result of the throw. To the policy of a foreign legislature, probably yielding to necessity, we are indebted for a supply of flax-seed, if that desideratum be at all procured.

At the time the business was first agitated, the true policy was obvious, to petition to have the restrictions, which prevented our receiving the supply removed. Our rulers had a plain path before them: to concede to the necessities of the people, but a tortuous and crooked policy was adopted, and our Irish minister of finance, first opened the English oil stores, poured in a quantity of seed into this country, part of which was of a very inferior quality, and then prevented the people from sowing, by holding expectations of seed arriving from America, which it was very doubtful would not be realized.

It is computed, that as yet not 20,000 hogsheads have reached this country, instead of 45,000 or 50,000, the quantity usually sown. Even if seed arrive in time from America, a large deficiency remains to be supplied. To sow more than the usual quantity is especially necessary after the defective crop of last year. Notwithstanding the difference of opinion which has subsisted as to the proper mode which ought to have been pursued, it must be the wish of all parties, that an adequate supply of good seed may be sown—but there is room to fear, that an ample supply at this advanced period of the season may not arrive in time, and that the poorer people, discouraged by the high price, may not sow all that may arrive, to their own great loss, as in the event of the price falling, they only risque the loss of a few shillings in the purchase of the small quantities they may want; but in case of not sowing, they encounter the danger of losing the means of employment and subsistence for the whole ensuing season. Last year they also judged erroneously, by suffering the high price to deter them from sowing, and much advantage would have accrued if the 6,000 hogsheads which were unsold had been sown. Theorists have said, that speculation is not hurtful—but practical injurious effects do arise from it. It perhaps might not be difficult to show that the true mean lies between the former dread of monopolies, and the present more fashionable doctrines on this subject. The spirit of our poorer farmers, and others in similar situations, is adverse to the high prices attempted through a system of speculation. To a certain degree such a disposition deserves to be cherished, but they may carry it so far as to injure themselves. It now appears evident, that the high prices at first demanded for flaxseed, would not have been paid, and if they had continued, the grounds would have been appropriated to other purposes, although to individual and national loss.

The transactions of the late and the present year, in the flaxseed market, furnish useful hints of caution to speculators. In India whole provinces were desolated by a monopoly of rice, but with us commerce is too extended, and our people too sturdy to permit such plans to be realized.

Much flax is in the hands of speculators, both in England and Ireland, who may probably find it a heavy bargain. It is difficult to procure sales, and the price is nearly nominal. From the injudicious manner in which flax was bought up, probably much of the stock on hands in the warehouses is of inferior quality. At one period, they bought with great avidity, as if secure of enriching themselves, if they only had the possession of flax, though at very exorbitant rates.

From present appearances a very considerable reverse seems likely to take place in commercial speculations. The holders of American produce, especially cotton, and all articles connected with the trade to America, may not probably find their golden dreams realized. The spirit of speculation has been carried to unwarrantable lengths, and those who have given way to it, must be expected to suffer. They have contributed to reduce trade to such a state of uncertainty, as to make it resemble too much a speculation in the lottery. Some blanks are now coming up. The quiet unambitious trader has been jostled by the busy speculators, and it is but just that these should have their share of perplexity. Adversity is often an useful instructor, whose lessons are enforced by compulsion.

Many of these evils are assignable to the commercial warfare in which we are engaged. The capitals turned from the former regular channels of trade, have flowed into those of speculation. Large purchases have been made, great gains have accrued in many instances, and probably great losses in the revolution of the wheel will also occur.

A motion has lately been made in the house of commons, by our countryman, Henry Parnell, to equalize the currency between Great Britain and Ireland, but for the present the measure was negatived.

Discount on gold is now reduced to 1, or 1¼, per cent. Exchange has risen, being generally, through the month for guineas, about 7 per cent. and for notes, 8 to 8¼ per cent. A most unfounded report was current for a day or two, respecting one of our northern banks, notwithstanding its undoubted respectability. Great caution should be used in circulating reports injurious to the credit of such establishments. It is one of the evils attendant on a paper currency, to be subjected to false alarms. Under present circumstances, whether desirable or not, paper is likely soon to be our only circulating medium, and to push out, by degrees, the very small quantity of guineas now remaining in circulation. But if the issue from the banks be excessive, or more than is readily and naturally absorbed in circulation, the notes will speedily recoil on the issuers, who, in such cases, will suffer at least as greatly as the public. An occasional check may have a salutary effect, by preventing inordinate issues.

West Indian produce continues to sell at depressed prices.

From present appearances in the North of Europe, our commercial prospects are not brighter in that quarter. The restrictions on the trade in the Baltic, will probably become more severe, without a friendly port in the North to shelter us, and with both sides of the Sound in possession of hostile powers. Of course timber and other northern produce, will probably be still more difficult to procure. The high price of timber continues to occasion much distress to many of our working classes. The small supply which hitherto has come from Canada, affords both in quantity and quality but a very poor substitute. The unjust attack on Copenhagen appears to have alienated the northern powers completely from us; and we must suffer from the effects of this iniquitous proceeding. In speaking of public measures, it is right to set down things as they are, and neither to flatter individuals nor nations in their errors or vices.

MEDICAL REPORT.

List of Diseases occurring in the practice of a Physician in Belfast, from March 20, till April 20.

Barometer.....highest	30 10	Thermometer.....highest	50 00
mean	29 30	mean	42 00
lowest	29 0	lowest	34 00

Typhus,	2	Contagious fever.
Synochus,	2	Of a mixed nature between inflammatory and typhus fever.
Opthalmia	3	Inflammation of the eyes.
Pneumonia,	1	Pleurisy.
Rheumatismus acutus,	2	Acute rheumatism.
Aphtha,	2	Thrush.
Phthysis Pulmonalis,	1	Consumption.
Asthma,	2	Asthma.
Ascites,	1	Dropsy.
Abortus,	1	Abortion.
Dyspepsia,	3	Indigestion.

Asthenia,	3	Nervous Debility.
Hæmoptysis,	1	Spitting of blood.
Catarrhus,	4	Common cold.
Dysenteria,	1	Flux.
Herpes,	3	Ringworm, or tetter.
Scrophula,	5	Evil.
Gonorrhœa, *Syphilis*,	8	Venereal disease.
Morbi infantiles,	25	Febrile and bowel complaints of children.

We decline making any observations on the diseases of this month, in order to make room for the bill for regulating inoculation for Small Pox (now before a Committee of the House of Commons) which cannot fail being highly interesting to the public:

"Whereas the inoculation of persons for the disorder called the Small-pox, according to the old, or Suttonian method, cannot be practised without the utmost danger of communicating and diffusing the infection, and thereby endangering, in a great degree, the lives of his majesty's subjects; May it therefore please your Majesty, that it may be enacted; and be it enacted by the King's most excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons in this present parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, That from and after the first day of August next, no medical practitioner or other persons shall inoculate patients for the small pox within the distance of three statute miles, within the distance of the utmost boundary of houses adjoining to each other, of any city, town, hamlet or village of the united kingdom, in which there are ten houses adjoining to each other, under the penalty of forfeiting fifty pounds for every such offence, to be recovered before two magistrates, upon the oath of one or more credible witness or witnesses, to be levied in case of conviction, upon the goods and chattles of the offender; and half of such penalty shall go and be paid to the informer, and half towards the establishment of a fund for the relief of any poor person or persons who may happen to be taken ill of the infectious small pox, in the parish in which such offence shall have been committed; and which fund shall be at the disposal of the clergyman and churchwardens or overseers of the poor of the said parish for the purposes aforesaid.

"And be it further enacted, That all medical practitioners or others inoculating for the Small-pox, or Suttonian method of inoculation, and where infection can be communicated therefrom without the limits or distance prescribed by this act, shall cause the words 'Small Pox Hospital' or 'Pest-house,' written or printed in large and legible characters, to be affixed upon some conspicuous part of the house or houses so employed in, or occupied for that purpose, under the penalty of fifty pounds, to be levied and applied in like manner as herein before directed, for his, her, or their neglect in doing the same.

"And be it further enacted, That in case any person or persons shall be taken ill of the infectious small pox in any city, town, hamlet or village, in which there shall be ten houses adjoining to each other, that then, and in such case, the person or persons so taken ill shall be removed by their family or relations as soon as he, she, or they shall be deemed fit by a medical person so to be removed at their own expense, or in case they are deemed incapable of bearing the same by two magistrates of the district, then at the immediate expense of the parish in which they are so taken ill; and which expense, together with all other reasonable charges, at the discretion of two magistrates of the district, shall afterwards be reimbursed by the parish or parishes to which such person or persons shall respectively belong, to some convenient and proper distance, such distance to be settled and appointed by the magistrate or magistrates of the district in which such case shall occur, and there to be taken proper medical care of, on pain of forfeiting, by the occupier of the house in which such person shall be taken ill, the sum of five pounds for every such offence, such penalty or penalties to be levied and applied in the same manner as herein-before directed by this act; and the master, mistress, or principal occupier of any house or houses where such infected person or persons shall be taken ill, or to which he, she, or they shall be removed by virtue of this act, and all persons whatever in the united kingdom having at any time the infectious small pox in his, her, or their house or houses, shall cause the words, "Small Pox here," written or printed in large and legible characters, to be fixed on some conspicuous part of his, her, or their house or houses for so long as the infected person or persons shall actually continue within the same in an infectious state as small pox patient or patients, under the penalty of twenty pounds for neglect in doing the same, for any such offence, to be levied and applied in the same manner as herein-before directed by this act.

"And be it further enacted, That every master or mistress, or principal occupier of any house or houses situated within any city, town, hamlet, or village, in which there are ten houses adjoining to each other, shall within twenty-four hours after the same shall have come to his, her, or their knowledge, inform the church-warden or church-wardens, or overseer or overseers of the poor of the parish in which such house or houses shall be situated, of such infectious small pox being in his, her, or their house or houses, under the penalty of ten pounds for neglect in doing the same, for every such offence, and which penalty or penalties shall be levied and applied as herein-before directed by this act.

"Provided always, and be it further enacted, That no penalty or penalties contained in this act shall be levied within the space of two calendar months from the time of the party or parties being convicted of the offence for which such penalty shall be incurred; and if it shall appear to two or more magistrates that the infectious small pox shall not have spread in consequence of any such offence, or neglect of any of the provisions or regulations contained in this act, but on the contrary, that the communication of such infection shall have been effectually prevented by proper and sufficient means, then and in such case it shall be lawful for such justice of the peace or magistrates, and they are hereby directed to remit the whole of any such penalty or penalties, any thing in this act contained to the contrary notwithstanding."

NATURALIST'S REPORT.

From March 20, *till April* 20.

Now thickly strewed in woodland bowers,
Anemones their stars unfold;
Now spring the sorrel's veined flowers:
And rich in vegetable gold;
From Calyx pale the freckled cowslips born,
Receive in jasper cups the fragrant dews of morn.

* * *

The easterly winds which have prevailed, and the frosty nights, have so considerably retarded vegetation, that fewer flowers than usual have made their appearance during this period, our woods and glens are however now highly ornamented with the more fully expanded flowers of the beautiful white wood Anemone (Anemone nemorosa) and Wood Sorrel (Oxalis Acetosella) and our old pastures with the common Cowslip (Primula veris.)

23, Double cupped Andromeda (Andromeda Calyculata) flowering.

29, Single Daffodil (Narcissus Pseudo Narcissus) Starch Hyacinth (Hyacinthus racemosus) Blue Appenine Anemone (Anemone Appenina) flowering.

30, Alpine wall cress (Arabis Alpina) Officinal Lungwort (Pulmonaria officinalis) flowering.

April 1, Dogs or scentles Violet (Viola canina) flowering.

8, Italian squill (Scilla Italica, Roman Cranesbill (Erodium Romanum) flowering.

13, Snowy Medlar (Mespilus Canadesis) flowering.

17, Marsh Marygold (Caltha palustris) and Sloe (Prunus spinosa) flowering.

19, Field-fares (Turdus pilaris) not departed as yet for the North.

20, Bernacle or Brent Goose (Anas Bernicla) yet remain in our Bay, in considerable quantities.

METEOROLOGICAL REPORT.

From March 20, *till April* 20.

METEOROLOGY, which has engaged the attention of modern philosophers, presents such a variety of objects to view, that it is beyond the power of any person to enter minutely into detail, and embrace every department. The great Halley employed himself, successfully for a series of years, in tracing the course of the periodical winds, and the justly celebrated Kirwan, by collecting innumerable observations made in different places on the temperature, has formed a theory, and given Tables, that render future observations on temperature more a matter of curiosity than use, and it now only remains for us, by collecting facts, and by observations to endeavour to prognosticate the changes of the wind, and the appearances of approaching storms. In every country the direction from whence the wind blows influences more or less the succeeding state of the atmosphere. Among a variety of phenomena which we have not had it

in our power satisfactorily to trace, is whether the East and N. East winds are to be regarded as sea breezes. In the neighbourhood of Belfast these winds are as regularly diurnal as the sea breeze is mentioned to be in the West Indies, rising with the sun and declining with it in the evening. If any of our inland friends have made observations which may lead to illustrate more fully this peculiar tendency of our maritime breeze, or any of those on the western coast will favour us with observations on the western winds, their communications will be thankfully received.

Cold dry days, or days rendered disagreeable by heavy showers of hail, have characterized the time elapsed since our last Report, and our flattering hopes of a premature summer have been unrealized. But for this disappointment the experienced endeavour to console us by saying, late Springs always make fruitful Atumns.

March 21st . . . . . Rain,
23 . . . . . Fine morning, wet evening,
24 . . . . . Rain,
25 . . . . . Showers,
26, ... Rain,
27, ... Showers,
28, 29, ... Cold, with light showers,
30, 31, ... Dry, cold days,
April 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ... Dark, cold days, on the 3d a few flakes of snow fell in the morning; on the 5th, thin ice in the morning,
6, ... Rain during the night; a dry day,
7, 8, 9, ... Dark, dry days,
10, ... Rain during the night; a dry day,
11, 12, ... Squally with heavy showers,
13, ... Showers,
14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, Hail showers, which on the 17th and 19th made the mountain tops white,
20, ... Clear, cold day, thin ice on shallow waters in the morning.

On the 13th and 14th of April the Barometer was 28.9. Sixteen days it was below 30. Twelve days above 30.

Although the Thermometer by which the observations are made, is suspended from a wall, facing the North-west, it has risen so suddenly after the cold of the night, that at 8, A. M. on the 4th of April, when it stood at 35, the cold of the night had congealed ice strong enough to resist the heat of the whole day, where the water was shaded, the greatest heat at 8, A. M. was April 8, 50°. April 9th, 49°.

The wind was observed Northerly 15, Southerly 10, Easterly 5, and Westerly two times; of the intermediate points the prevalence was easterly.

CELESTIAL PHENOMENA.

FOR MAY 1809.

On the first, the Moon rises at 20 min. past 10, aft. being then under the thirteenth star of the Scorpion and Saturn, having passed the former a few minutes before 1 o'clock, and the latter at 1. The star and planet are very near each other, and during the night with the Moon and first and second of the Scorpion, form a pleasing groupe. The Moon sets at 28 min. past 6, next morning.

Fifth, The Moon rises at 58 min. past 0, morning, and is soon followed by the two first stars of the Goat; she passes the second of these stars at half past two afternoon. She sets at 48 min past 9, morning.

Tenth, The Moon rises at 2 min. past 5, morning; passes the meridian at 8, and sets at 48 min. past 3, aft.

Sixteenth, She rises at 6 in the morning, being 1 hour and 58 min. later than the Sun; soon after sun-set she is perceived between the horns of the Bull, the Pleiades and Aldebaran, sinking under the horizon, and Venus being very near it. She sets 58 min. past 9, aft.

Twentieth, She rises at 49 min. past 9 morning, and is near but to the west of the two first stars of the Crab; above her we may see the stars in the Lion, and much nearer to her, but lower, are the small stars in the head of Hydra. At 9 she is 71° 38′ from the first of the Virgin, she sets at 12 at night.

Twenty-fifth, She rises at 54 min. past 3, aft. and passes the meridian at 10 min.

past 9, having the first star of the Virgin below her to the east, and the fifth at a considerable height above her on the meridian; at 9 she is 48° 36′ from the first of the Lion, and 51° 21′ from Antares. She sets at 20 min. past 2 the next morning.

Thirtieth. She rises 5 min. past ten aft. considerably to the east of the two first stars of the Scorpion and Saturn, being soon after followed by the twelfth of the Archer; at nine she is 69° 48′ from Spica in the Virgin, and 79° 12′ from Pegasus. She sets at 13 min. past 6 next morning.

Mercury is a morning star in the beginning, and an evening star at the end of the month; his superior conjunction taking place on the 12th. From the 25th he will adorn the heavens towards the north-west by west, and will be seen for a considerable time after sun-set.

Venus is an evening star in the beginning, and a morning star towards the end of the month; her inferior conjugation being on the 24th. The Moon passes her on the 15th.

Mars is on the meridian on the 1st, at 32 min. past 10, and on the 20th at 12 min. past nine, having directly above him the third of the Virgin.

Jupiter is a morning star, and moves with a direct motion through six degrees and a half; the early riser will observe him in the east. The Moon passes him on the 11th.

Saturn is on the meridian at 50 min. past one on the morning of the first; his motion is retrograde through 2¾ degrees. This planet, with the first and second of the Scorpion, and the small stars in this constellation, form a very pleasing groupe through the whole of the month.

Herchell passes the meridian on the 1st, at 9 min. past 12 at night. The moon passes him on the 1st.

ECLIPSES OF JUPITER'S SATELLITES.

1st SATELLITE. *Imersions.*				2d SATELLITE. *Imersions.*				3d SATELLITE.					4th SATELLITE.			
DAYS.	H.	M.	S.	DAYS.	H.	M.	S.	DAYS.	H.	M.	S.		DAYS.	H.	M.	S.
1	14	20	24	1	6	50	10	2	11	44	44	Im.	12	2	45	21 Im.
3	8	49	0	4	20	8	23	2	14	25	19	E.	12	4	17	55 E.
5	3	17	31	8	9	27	24	9	15	46	10	Im.	28	21	11	46 Im.
6	21	46	6	11	22	45	36	9	18	25	37	E.	28	22	20	25 E.
8	16	14	37	15	12	4	41	16	19	47	23	Im.	* *First Satellite Contained.*			
10	10	43	12	19	1	22	55	16	22	25	51	E.	21	1	34	20
12	5	11	42	22	14	42	3	23	23	49	21	Im.	22	20	2	47
13	23	40	16	26	4	0	18	24	2	26	43	E.	24	14	31	19
15	18	8	46	29	17	19	28	31	3	50	25	Im.	26	8	59	47
17	12	37	19					31	6	26	43	E.	28	3	28	18
19	7	5	47										29	21	56	45
													31	16	25	15

Look to the right hand.*

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We are much obliged to our Correspondent W. H. D. who dates from Dungannon.—He informs us that the "Ten Days of Happiness," an article which lately appeared in our Magazine was borrowed from Walker's Hibernian Miscellany. Previously to publication we had doubts on the originality of this article, and inquired in our notices to Correspondents, if it were original. We heartily join our Correspondent in reprobating the folly of those, who send us a plume they have stolen from others, as their own. Such a practice is the *lowest* kind of *literary imposture*.

We have reason to think that "Spinnbrain," and "The Maid's Husband," are similar impositions.

A Fragment does not suit our pages. We solicit Contributions from our Friends; but let them be original. We also venture to recommend simplicity of style. Essays, however short, may be nevertheless very interesting, if the subject be properly handled; of such collections a Magazine is properly formed. Like contributory streams which diversify and adorn the face of the country, they swell the general current, and add to its utility. We particularly solicit descriptions of towns and places in our own country, accompanied with views of society and manners among us. We wish our Magazine in this respect, to furnish a kind of gazetteer, *or Ireland delineated*, affording amusement and instruction to our readers at home, and also to our brethren on the other side of the channel.

*** We hoped to exhibit to our subscribers a specimen of the Yarn spun by Ann M'Quillin, and had procured some for that purpose, but finding what we had got was insufficient, we were disappointed of getting another hank. In our next Number we hope to gratify our readers by affixing to each number of the magazine a small sample of fine yarn of her spinning.

Owing to an inaccuracy of the Binder, some of the sheets in some copies of our last Number were misplaced.—We request that any of our Subscribers, who may have received such erroneous copies may return them, that the error may be corrected.